

THE SOUTHERN SPEECH JOURNAL

DECEMBER, 1951

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AUGUSTUS H. GARLAND — ARKANSAS RECONSTRUCTION ORATOR

MARGUERITE PEARCE METCALF*

INTRODUCTION

In 1874 while the nation was still struggling with problems of the Reconstruction; at a time when people were concerned with party politics, political reforms, regulation of industrial expansion, and means of controlling corporate wealth; while Henry Ward Beecher and Phillips Brooks were still active in the pulpit; while Jeremiah S. Black was on the United States Supreme Court, and Lucius Q. C. Lamar was trying to heal the wounds of sectional strife — in this period of unrest and confusion — Arkansans found themselves listening to promises of peace and prosperity from a stirring orator by the name of Augustus H. Garland.

Garland's career as a speaker can be divided into five phases. The first includes his college forensics and the speaking he did during the early years of his law practice. The second incorporates his debates in the Pulaski County Secession Convention, in the Provisional Congress at Montgomery, Alabama, and later in the Confederate Congress. A third era of Garland's public address is composed of his campaign against the Constitutional Convention and the Constitution of 1868 and for the Constitutional Convention and the Constitution of 1874. During the canvass in behalf of the Constitution of 1874 he was also advocating the election of the Democratic ticket on which he was candidate for governor. After his election to the governorship Garland's style of speaking changed again, and this period of three years stands alone as the fourth phase of his oratorical career. The fifth and final alteration in the composition and delivery of his speeches came while Garland was in the United States

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Senate and remained characteristic of his speaking during his career as Attorney General in President Cleveland's cabinet.

It was during the third phase of his public address, while he was campaigning throughout Arkansas for the Constitution of 1874 and for his own candidacy, that Garland met his most difficult audience situations. In meeting and solving these problems the development of his skill as a speaker is evident. It was in this period also that he made many significant contributions to his state by leading forces in destroying the corrupt Reconstruction government, by restoring order and peace, and by giving people of the state hope and faith in the future. For these reasons it is the third era of Garland's speaking career that forms the subject of this study.

A brief sketch of his life and the times out of which he emerged appear to be a fitting preface to a discussion of his speaking during the Campaign of 1874.

THE MAN AND THE TIMES

After having pursued his higher education at St. Mary's Academy and St. Joseph's College in Bardstown, Kentucky where he first earned his reputation as a speaker of note, Augustus H. Garland returned to Hempstead County, Arkansas in 1852 where he studied law in the office of his step-father, Judge Thomas Hubbard.¹ In 1856 he moved to Little Rock to form a partnership with Ebenezer Cummins. Shortly thereafter Cummins died and Garland, at twenty-four, found himself the possessor of a large and lucrative law practice, an opportune preface to his lengthy political career.²

Garland's reputation as a lawyer became significant nationally in 1860 when he went to Washington, D. C., to represent clients in *McGee vs. Mathis* and six other similar cases "involving the impairing of the obligation of contracts by state laws." While the cases were not decided until several years later at which time, because of the war, the remuneration was not sufficient to pay the court costs,

¹Allan Johnson and Dumas Malone (eds.), *Dictionary Of American Biography* VII (New York, 1931), 150-151.

²Farrar Newberry, *A Life Of Mr. Garland Of Arkansas* (Arkadelphia, n. p., 1908), 7-8.

Garland's victory in the high tribunal was deemed a significant ruling.³

At twenty-nine Augustus Garland received his first elective office as representative of Pulaski County in the Secession Convention of 1861.⁴ He was elected as an ardent Union representative, along with other Union delegates including Rufus K. Garland, his brother, and Alfred H. Carrigan, a prominent citizen of Hempstead County.⁵ Carrigan recalled vividly the work of Garland in that memorable assembly:

Although comparatively a young man, A. H. Garland of Pulaski County exercised as much if not more influence than any other one in the body; still he seldom spoke or made a motion; in fact the Union men were on the defensive and simply attempted to keep wrong from being done. . . . A man of great sprightliness and versatility, Garland of Pulaski (A. H.) did not attempt oratory, but used a colloquial and argumentative style that was attractive and convincing.⁶

Garland and his friends were able to prevent secession at that session, but when the convention re-assembled on May 6, 1861, after the fall of Ft. Sumter, Garland saw that war was inevitable and cast his vote for secession.

Garland's contribution to the war effort was confined to his participation in legislative affairs of the Confederacy. In May, 1861, he represented the state at the provisional Congress in Montgomery, Alabama and in November of that year he was elected to the Confederate Congress as a representative of the third district. In 1864 he went to the Confederate Senate where he remained until the final session was held on March 18, 1865.⁷

At the close of the Civil War, Garland re-established his residence in Little Rock. Like everyone else he found himself completely

³Augustus H. Garland, *Experience In The United States Supreme Court* (Washington, 1898), 2-22.

⁴*Arkansas Gazette*, April 20, 1947.

⁵Fay Hempstead, *Historical Review of Arkansas* (Chicago, 1911), I, 282.

⁶Alfred H. Carrigan, "Reminiscences of the Secession Convention," *Arkansas Historical Association Publications*, I (1906), 307.

⁷*Executive and Congressional Directory of the Confederate States, 1861-1865* (Washington, 1899), 5-11.

impoverished. "His negroes were gone; his property worthless, and his splendid practice absolutely destroyed, while military law dominated the land."⁸

Garland was not so much concerned with the destruction of his practice as with his disbarment as a result of the "ironclad oath law."⁹ He recognized the need for immediate action if the careers of the Southern lawyers were to be salvaged; thus he decided to test the validity of the legislation. With the help of Reverdy Johnson of Maryland he secured a pardon from President Andrew Johnson, but even with this reprieve he was unable to practice in the federal courts. Again with the assistance of Reverdy Johnson and that of Matt Carpenter, a lawyer of nationwide reputation, Garland filed suit under the heading of *Ex Parte Garland*.¹⁰

The contentions of Garland's brief in the case were logical and concise, and his argument displayed skillful research and marked ability. A decision in Garland's favor was rendered in 1867 establishing him as one of the outstanding lawyers in the country.¹¹ The ruling not only permitted Southern lawyers to practice, but it set a precedent for undoing much of the unconstitutional legislation passed during the latter part of the Civil War and immediately thereafter.¹²

It was largely Garland's pursuance of the Southern cause in the case *Ex Parte Garland* that gave the people of the state hope that he could secure an early re-admission of Arkansas into the Union. Therefore, the General Assembly elected him to the United States Senate in 1867. The Radicals in the Senate, led by Thaddeus Stevens, refused to seat Garland and his colleague, John T. Jones.¹³

The years 1868 to 1874 Garland spent waging a campaign against the Reconstruction government in Arkansas. Having been recognized as an outstanding figure in the Confederacy, a lawyer of national

⁸Josiah H. Shinn, *Pioneers and Makers of Arkansas* (Little Rock, 1908), 324.

⁹The "iron clad oath law" provided, among other things, that no lawyer could practice in the federal courts unless he could take an oath to the effect that he had not aided the Southern cause. Dallas T. Herndon, *Centennial History of Arkansas* (Chicago-Little Rock, 1922), I, 689.

¹⁰Garland, 21.

¹¹John Hallum, *Biographical and Pictorial History of Arkansas* (Albany, 1887), 383.

¹²Dallas T. Herndon, *The Arkansas Handbook, 1945-46* (Little Rock, 1946), 125.

¹³Hempstead, 283.

fame, and an effective speaker, he was a natural choice as leader of the Democratic party in the state.¹⁴

Through the provisions of the Reconstruction Act of 1867, the federal army and the Republicans came into power in Arkansas in 1868.¹⁵ Garland worked actively against the corrupt Clayton regime made possible by the Constitution of 1868.¹⁶ By 1872 dissension developed within Republican ranks, and by 1874 Garland and his friends were able to elect Democrats to a significant number of vacancies in the Legislature, an action considered unimportant by the Republicans since the Legislature was not scheduled to convene during their terms of office.¹⁷

However, in 1874 when Joseph Brooks, a Radical, usurped the office of governor from Elisha Baxter, a Conservative, Baxter turned to the Democrats and urged Garland to lead the fight to reinstate him.¹⁸ Civil war ensued and for several days the streets of Little Rock were the scene of actual combat. Order was restored after Garland's unique telegraphic strategy convinced President Grant that Baxter should be restored to the office of governor. Grant ordered that the final decision should rest with the General Assembly, which was by that time heavily Democratic.¹⁹ Baxter was proclaimed the rightful Governor of Arkansas, and Garland was hailed as a champion of freedom and democracy.²⁰

With the restoration of Baxter and the subsequent election of Garland as governor, the Democratic party came into a power it was to retain for the next seventy-five years.

GARLAND AND THE CAMPAIGN OF 1874

Having previously demonstrated his personal popularity, forensic ability, and astute judgment in politics and government, it is hardly surprising that Augustus H. Garland was chosen gubernatorial can-

¹⁴John M. Harrell, *The Brooks and Baxter War* (St. Louis, 1893), 37.

¹⁵Hempstead, 262.

¹⁶Harrell, 37.

¹⁷Thomas Starling Staples, *Reconstruction in Arkansas: 1862-1874* (New York, 1923), 23ff; 407ff.

¹⁸Benjamin S. Johnson, "The Brooks and Baxter War," *The Arkansas Historical Association Publications*, II (1906), 132.

¹⁹Daily Arkansas Gazette, May 9, 11, 16, and 19, 1874.

²⁰Ibid.

dicate for the Democratic Party in 1874. As a candidate for governor, Garland was not only charged with the responsibility of securing his own election, but also with the task of persuading the people of Arkansas to accept a new constitution recently constructed by the Constitutional Convention of 1874, a body composed principally of Democrats.

The campaign of 1874 opened on September 17 in Forrest City and closed October 11 in Ozark. During this period Garland made seventeen scheduled speeches and innumerable informal appearances. Considering the inadequacies of transportation at the time, the canvass was a momentous undertaking.²¹

Arkansas in 1874, feeling the influence of white people and Negroes, of Democrats and Republicans, of small farmers and plantation owners, produced audiences with varying attitudes toward ratification of the new constitution and the Democratic ticket. These divergent tenets held by people throughout the state challenged Garland to adapt his speeches skillfully to each audience before which he appeared. For example, he met a divided audience at Helena, a unified audience at Searcy, a favorable audience at Newport and an undecided audience at Lewisburg. These towns were located variously in the eastern, central, northeastern, and western parts of the state.

Augustus H. Garland stepped into a difficult audience situation at Helena, Phillips County during the early days of the campaign for the Constitution of 1874 and his own candidacy for Governor of Arkansas. The Negroes of the locality had gained prominence in the state government during the early days of the Reconstruction, and they saw no need for a change.²² The Union sympathizers knew Garland as a member of the Confederacy and a friend of the South. Although the plantation owners wanted to be for him, and doubtless were, they remembered that at first he had opposed secession and since the close of the war the press had pictured him as unusually tolerant of the Negroes, even suggesting that he advocated their having a greater voice in public affairs. To be successful Gar-

²¹*Ibid.*, Sept. 15, 1874.

²²Not only did Phillips County Negroes hold important posts in the state government, but they were instrumental in framing the Constitution of 1868. Eugene Cypert, "Constitution Convention of 1868," *Arkansas Historical Association Publications*, IV (1917), 10.

land had to adapt his speech to three widely different groups: the ex-slaves, the plantation owners, and the Union sympathizers. The first two possessed almost equal voting strength.

Evidently Garland anticipated well in advance the divergent views of his Helena audience for he arranged to have as his traveling companion Colonel R. A. Howard, a Northerner, who had participated actively on the side of the Union during the war.²³ The combination was ideal. Garland appealed to the ex-Confederates and the Democrats while Howard, though espousing the Democratic cause, directed his remarks chiefly to the Union sympathizers and the Republicans. Both speakers emphasized their interest in and their sympathy for the Negroes.

It is unfortunate, perhaps, that Garland and Howard did not speak at Helena in behalf of their own candidacies rather than on the merits of the new constitution. While their approval of the new document appealed to the ex-Confederates, who had suffered from heavy taxation and from a denial of privileges under the Constitution of 1868, their choice of subject probably was not effective with the Negro auditors and the carpet baggers who had been instrumental in framing the law of 1868. Therefore, from a portion of the audience Garland and Howard encountered an initial hostility which might have been avoided had the speeches been centered on the candidates themselves.

Garland opened his speech at Helena by establishing a common ground consisting of mutual hardships suffered during the War Between the States. He proceeded to his thesis that the future of Arkansas would be bright under the Constitution of 1874. He then showed the weaknesses of the Constitution of 1868 and followed with an explanation of the salient features of the Constitution of 1874.

The Helena speech showed a predominance of logical proof with sparing use of pathetic and ethical appeal. He used a deductive form of reasoning, and the speech showed a distinct lack of rhetorical factors of interest.

The *Weekly Arkansas Gazette* reported that Garland's speech was received with "round after round of applause," and four days following the address the *Daily Arkansas Gazette* of September 25 said that the Republican Convention of Phillips County, controlled

²³*Helena World* in the *Weekly Arkansas Gazette*, Sept. 29, 1874.

principally by colored men, voted to support the Constitution of 1874. Yet, despite this seeming success, when the final vote was tabulated, Phillips County voted 2,194 "against" to 1,958 "for" ratification. Garland received only 1,214 of the total 4,142 cast.²⁴

It would appear Garland was laboring under the false assumption that if his platform, the Constitution of 1874, were accepted he would be nominated. Furthermore, the vote would seem to indicate that in Garland's attempt to adapt his speech to all factions he doubtless weakened his appeal to each.

However, there is no way of estimating the number of votes Garland may have salvaged by his speech in Phillips County. As early as August, 1874 the Republicans boasted that the Democrats would not be able to capture the Negro vote in Phillips County. It may be the Democrats did not expect to gain a majority vote in the area and estimated any votes gained would be in the nature of a major triumph. In case the latter situation existed, Garland's speech may be evaluated as the factor which led to a victory in Phillips County even though the final tabulation did not place the county in the Democratic column.

The *Daily Arkansas Gazette* noted that at least a part of Garland's Searcy audience was "lukewarm" toward the speaker when he began his address. Located in central Arkansas, the people of the area were subjected to cross currents in thinking. A few years prior to Garland's appearance, Searcy citizens, many of them Negroes, had given howling approbation to Powell Clayton, Republican Reconstruction leader in the state, when he spoke in behalf of the Reconstruction regime.²⁵ There seem to have been few Negroes in Garland's audience, but his followers evidently expected trouble for they organized "The Garland Rifles," a military company whose purpose was described as being "to support the Constitution of 1874."²⁶

In his Searcy speech Garland used the proposition that the Constitution of 1874 should be ratified and the Democratic ticket elected to carry out the provisions of the new document. Possibly recognizing the weakness of his thesis in earlier speeches, Garland here urged

²⁴*County Election Record of 1874*, Dudley E. Jones, U. M. Rose, Gordon N. Peay, Acting Secretary, State Board of Election Supervisors.

²⁵J. W. House, "Constitutional Convention of 1874—Reminiscences," *Arkansas Historical Association Publications*, IV (1917), 260.

²⁶Searcy Record in the *Daily Arkansas Gazette*, Sept. 22, 1874.

the election of Democratic candidates as well as ratification of the new law.

In the introduction Garland emphasized that he planned no oratorical masterpiece, but rather he hoped to talk simply "as one sensible man to another." This approach was in direct contrast to Clayton's speech a year or so previously when the Republican governor impressed his auditors with his use of "fine Latin phrases" and elaborate figures of speech. Garland then proceeded to establish a common ground by mentioning their mutual hardships during the late war and followed with a reference to the need for a new constitution.

Obviously assuming the audience accepted the need, he rushed on to the advantages contained in the Constitution of 1874 and spent the major portion of his speech showing the good that would accrue from its ratification if the Democratic party were given the power to administer it. In conclusion Garland refuted criticism previously leveled at the new law by using *reductio ad absurdum*.

Though Garland espoused simplicity in the Searcy speech, he resorted to elaborate figures of speech just as Clayton had done, and he made more use of pathetic appeal that was evident in earlier speeches. For the first time in the campaign he stressed education for the Negroes and showed how the Constitution of 1874 provided equal advantages for Negroes and whites.

Perhaps Garland's most potent weapon of persuasion, at least for the majority of his audience, was Garland the man. Garland was well known and highly respected among most of the residents of this little community fifty miles north of his home. His career during the war and following it, his service to the people at the expense of his own law practice, his untiring efforts in the interest of law enforcement and good government, and his devotion to the principles of the Democratic party made him wholly acceptable to the majority of an audience almost entirely Democratic.

The *Daily Arkansas Gazette* was lavish in its praise of the Searcy speech calling it, "one of the happiest efforts of his (Garland's) life." However, the *Daily Republican*, chief organ of the opposition, attacked his stand on education for the Negroes and challenged his sincerity, his integrity, his knowledge, and his ability.

White County cast 2,377 votes "for" ratification to 58 "against"

and Garland received a total of 2,394.²⁷ While Garland's appearance in Searcy cannot be considered the only significant factor in the overwhelming Democratic victory there, he seems to have won many of his "lukwarm" auditors.

In Newport, Garland addressed an audience entirely favorable to his cause. There seem to have been no Republicans present and no Negroes.

Freed from the responsibility of changing opinion, Garland was able to direct his entire speech toward an enthusiastic endorsement of the new law emphasizing the informative rather than the persuasive angle. Therefore his thesis was less impelling than in former addresses. He chose a simple proposition of fact, though tinged with pathetic appeal in the nature of a purpose-sentence for a stimulative speech. He declared that the provisions of the new constitution were liberal and just.

After barely mentioning the need for a new law, Garland painstakingly explained section by section the provisions of the Constitution of 1874 emphasizing those portions most vital to the small land-owners to whom he was speaking.

Although this speech was almost wholly informative in nature, Garland did not ignore the pathetic mode. His use of emotional appeal centered on the intangible qualities of liberty, tolerance, freedom of choice and action, equality and justice before the law. He reminded his auditors they had once enjoyed such privileges and under the Constitution of 1874 these rights would be restored to them. He supported his statements with concrete examples and vivid illustrations, many of a personal nature. Consequently, he carefully interwove his ethical appeal with the pathetic mode while making an address which stressed the informative purpose.

Jackson County gave the Constitution of 1874 an overwhelming vote, 1,732 "for" to 1 "against." Equally impressive was Garland's vote of 1,732, the same number cast for the new document.²⁸

If the Democratic leaders recognized the unanimity of support to their cause in Newport, and it seems evident they did, it would seem wasted effort for Garland to appear there. At this point in the campaign the party was taking no chances on losing the ground already

²⁷*County Election Record of 1874.*

²⁸*Ibid.*

gained. For Garland to have by-passed Jackson County would have meant a lack of appreciation for the people's loyalty and possibly a loss of votes.

At Lewisburg, now incorporated in the town of Morrilton, Garland met one of his most difficult audience situations. Speaking before a crowd composed almost wholly of Negroes, enjoying their freedom though completely unprepared to exercise it wisely, Garland's problem was to present a simple explanation of the party platform in a persuasive manner without taking undue advantage of the colored people's susceptibility to emotional appeal. A further complication was that in 1868 Lewisburg had been the scene of a near riot following a dispute between the whites and the blacks. At that time Garland, along with other prominent leaders of both parties, had spoken there on behalf of law and order, but their success was dubious.²⁹ However, according to the *Weekly Standard*, a local paper, Garland was received warmly and enthusiastically on the occasion of his campaign appearance, October 7, 1874.

After somewhat brief opening remarks Garland presented his thesis that ratification of the Constitution of 1874 and election of Democratic candidates would be advantageous to the colored man. Recognizing the privileges the Negroes had gained under the Constitution of 1868, Garland began by showing his auditors they would not lose those rights but would actually gain additional advantages. He extolled the virtues of the framers of the Constitution of 1874 and refuted Republican charges that they were members of the Ku Klux Klan and the White League.

Garland emphasized the new constitution would provide the Negro with rights and opportunities equal with those of the white man. Article by article he explained in detail: equal rights before the law, prohibition of slavery or involuntary servitude, equal voting privileges, equality of educational opportunity, and civil rights. He stressed equality of education and civil rights, neither of which had been provided for in the Constitution of 1868.

In this speech Garland made virtually no use of pathetic appeal and used examples and illustrations sparingly. For proof he relied on the ethical mode pointing up his own sincerity and integrity and

²⁹*Daily Arkansas Gazette*, Oct. 9, 1874.

the fine qualities of the framers of the new law. If elected, he said, he would guarantee the enforcement of the constitution just as it was written, and the Negro would be greatly benefitted.

Several observations concerning this address appear worthy of consideration. First, apparently Garland's views on equality of educational opportunity were sincere. Article XIV, Section 1, of the Constitution of 1874, which is the constitution used by the State of Arkansas today, states:

Intelligence and virtue being the safeguards of liberty and the bulwark of a free and good government, the State shall ever maintain a general, suitable and efficient system of free schools, whereby all persons in the State between the ages of six and twenty-one years may receive gratuitous instruction.

After Garland's election he was instrumental in organizing an educational program for the Negroes.

Second, Garland's emphasis on civil rights would seem to have been an attempt to combat a federal civil rights program then before Congress; but here, too, Garland's sincerity seems to have been genuine. After his election he appointed W. H. Gray, a Negro, of Helena, as Commissioner of State Lands. Charles Nordhoff, a Northern newspaper man, reported that he found a large number of Negroes filling important posts in Garland's administration, and that this procedure seemed to be acceptable to the people of the state.

Third, as well as Garland understood the Negro people he must have recognized he could accomplish his desired goal through the use of emotional appeal. Yet, in his Lewisburg speech, he virtually omitted the pathetic mode. Rather, he chose an informative speech heavily interspersed with ethical proof.

The final tabulation shows 888 "for" ratification to 341 "against," and Garland received 881 votes.³⁰ While these figures do not indicate overwhelming affirmative action, they were decisive enough to place Conway County in the Democratic column.

Perhaps a more indicative commentary on the effectiveness of the speech was the observation of a reporter to the effect that Garland was frequently interrupted by applause. A Southern Negro audience is known to give applause and hearty approbation spontaneously if

³⁰*County Election Record of 1874.*

the speaker meets the approval of his auditors. An equally accepted belief is that such response is seldom forthcoming unless the speaker has the endorsement, respect, and admiration of his colored hearers. In short, Garland would not have received such enthusiastic response had he not won substantially his Negro auditors.

CONCLUSION

A careful examination of the speaking of Augustus H. Garland during the Reconstruction Era reveals that his addresses in the Campaign of 1874 are representative of some of the best deliberative oratory of the period. The campaign speeches delivered at Helena, Searcy, Newport, and Lewisburg, chosen on the basis of locale, audience composition, and tenets held in each area, appear to have presented typical forensic problems Garland encountered. He proved his versatility in the variety of means he used to solve these problems.

On the basis of analyses of these four speeches certain conclusions appear justifiable:

1. In three out of four speeches, Searcy, Newport, and Lewisburg, the cause Garland was advocating was overwhelmingly successful.
2. Although it cannot be ascertained definitely that Garland's speaking was entirely responsible for the immediate results of the campaign, in each of the four speeches there are indications that his address was significant in influencing public opinion.
3. In two out of four speeches, at Helena and Lewisburg, Garland was faced with difficult audience situations. In Helena the audience was almost evenly divided between whites and Negroes. In Lewisburg the audience was composed predominantly of uneducated colored men.
4. In three of the four speeches, Searcy, Newport, and Lewisburg, Garland showed an adeptness at adapting his subject to the audience; at Helena, unable to determine his majority group, he showed a lack of effectiveness in this technique. At Searcy he adapted his subject to the minority without offending the majority; thus his speech became effective for both groups. At Newport he met a unified audience situation which presented no problem. At Lewisburg his majority group of Negroes could have proved hostile had the subject been handled less tactfully.
5. Logical proof was strong in all four speeches; its solid construction gave evidence of the effect Garland's legal training

and experience had upon his speaking. Logical proof was stronger in the addresses at Searcy and Newport than at Helena and Lewisburg. At Helena logical proof was directed to the white people exclusively. At Lewisburg Garland's logical proof consisted wholly of an interpretation of the constitution itself as it affected the Negro, and it was not as sound as in previous speeches.

6. The pathetic mode was not emphasized in any of the four speeches, but it was used to a modest degree at Helena, Searcy, and Newport; it was virtually omitted from the Lewisburg speech.
7. Ethical appeal was dominant in all four speeches, and the effective use Garland made of this technique appears to have been his most potent factor in influencing belief. His past career was respected and admired. He was identified with both Northern and Southern sentiments. He was known as a good man.

Through heritage, background, and training, Augustus H. Garland was exceptionally well qualified to assume a position of leadership in state and national politics. Though he is credited with great personal charm, an imposing stature, a beautiful voice, and unusual fluency of language, perhaps he is best remembered for his humane spirit, his deep sincerity, his strong convictions, and the ability to sight his objectives and determinedly conquer his objectives. In summary, not the least of his assets was his fulfilling of Quintilian's basic requirements for a great orator, "a good man skilled in speaking."

DISCUSSION IN THE FLORIDA CABINET

DAL ALBRITTON* AND GREGG PHIFER**

The government of Florida is divided into the tripartite system made familiar by our federal constitution. Strongest power in the executive branch of Florida, however, is not the Governor but the Cabinet, made up of the heads of various executive departments and the chief executive. Since the Cabinet functions through regular public discussion, this paper will survey some of the constitutional and statutory provisions, as well as the personal drives and motives, affecting the nature and outcome of Cabinet deliberations. This is not a description of Cabinet discussions but rather a study of those forces affecting them.

I. THE CABINET SYSTEM IN FLORIDA

Members of the Cabinet are the Governor, the Secretary of State, the Attorney General, the Comptroller, the Treasurer, the Commissioner of Agriculture, and the Superintendent of Public Instruction. Florida's Cabinet system is unique in that all of the officials are elected by the people of the state at the same election and in the same manner as the Governor.¹ Each Cabinet member is in his own right the executive officer of an important division of state government. Each has an independence and an importance in Cabinet discussions which would otherwise be impossible.²

The state constitution lists the members of the Cabinet in the order given. When the Governor is absent, the Secretary of State presides over Cabinet sessions, and so on.

Florida gives her Governor little statutory or constitutional power

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¹*Constitution of Florida*, Article IV.

²Many states have adopted the Model State Constitution which provides for the appointment of the Cabinet by the Governor. The Council of State Governments has opposed the election of Cabinet members on the grounds that the Governor does not have the power to carry out his objectives under this system. *Model State Constitution*, Council of State Governments (Chicago, 1949).

over administration. Instead, the power lies in a series of thirty-one boards made up of three to seven Cabinet members.³ These boards are ex-officio in nature, the holder of a particular office automatically assuming membership on certain boards as part of his duties. All seven members of the Cabinet serve on two powerful boards: the Budget Commission, which plans Florida's biennial budget and allocates money to state agencies; and the Board of Commissioners of State Institutions.

The Cabinet meets every Tuesday morning at ten o'clock in the State Capitol. A casual observer frequently finds it difficult to distinguish one board from another as the Cabinet functions first as one and then as another of its thirty-one boards. Each member, however, knows the boards of which he is a member and carefully refrains from discussion and vote during the deliberations of boards of which he is not a member.

The Cabinet is of paramount importance in the day-to-day administration of state government. The pooling of power allocated to the various boards through which it functions makes the Cabinet a hierarchy with influence that penetrates every nook and cranny of the state. The dynamics of group leadership and group behavior and the pressures which influence individual participants are of tremendous importance to every Florida citizen.

II. ROLE OF THE GOVERNOR

As chairman of the major boards that represent the Cabinet's power, the Governor of Florida is leader of Cabinet discussions. Only his position as chairman, however, singles him out from among the men around the Cabinet table. Action requires a majority vote of the Cabinet, and the Governor cannot veto any action.⁴ He must obtain the cooperation of the other members to reach his objectives, and this requires an unusual and difficult combination of "prestige, personality, and party leadership."⁵

³Six boards include members not on the Cabinet: State Defense Council, Armory Board, State Planning Board, State Milk Commission, Stephen Foster Memorial, and State Improvement Commission. See *Florida Statutes, 1949*.

⁴Allen Morris, *The Florida Handbook, 1949-50* (Tallahassee, 1949), 3.

⁵*Report of the Special Joint Economy and Efficiency Committee of the Florida Legislature of 1943*, 21.

Party leadership gives the Governor little authority. In a one-party state, liberals and conservatives run under the same party banner and the result is an "every man for himself" campaign. Cabinet members do not ride in on the Governor's coat tails;⁶ instead they run individually and are indebted to no one but themselves and personal supporters for election.

The Governor has some patronage at his disposal: a few choice administrative plums and a great many smaller positions in the Motor Vehicle Department, State Road Department, and State Beverage Department. Cabinet members who want jobs for political friends will do well to see frequently the Governor's side of Cabinet arguments. On the other hand, even those who vote with the Governor are careful not to ally their fortunes too closely with his, since he is sure to have political enemies whereas other Cabinet members usually have practically none.

Prestige works both for and against the Governor as the leader of Cabinet deliberations. He enters office with a popular endorsement of his platform after a rough and tumble political campaign. During the early days of his term this mandate from the people gives him a potent weapon in Cabinet discussions, especially since he and his views receive most extensive notice from the press.

Cabinet members are seldom opposed for reelection and faced with the necessity for conducting a popular campaign. Frequently they are reelected time and again and die in office without knowing the sting of political defeat. Such veteran public servants often have enormous prestige throughout the state.

Unfamiliarity with the intricate proceedings of the Cabinet handicaps most governors for some months after taking office. Cabinet members must explain past precedents and acquaint the Governor with administrative procedures.

During their terms in office most Florida governors become exceedingly unpopular,⁷ and probably not a little of the blame lies in the difficult administrative position forced upon them by the unique Florida Cabinet system. With little more administrative power than heads of state departments, the Governor, as Florida's chief executive,

*V. O. Key, *Southern Politics* (New York, 1949), 99.

⁷Only two of Florida's governors have later held the office of U. S. Senator, despite the fact that nearly all have run for the office.

is responsible in the people's eyes for the conduct of state government.

Personality must be the key to success or failure for any Florida Governor under the present system of state government. A strong and wise Governor may influence Cabinet deliberations through his position as discussion leader. He takes the lead in examining the numerous witnesses who appear before the Cabinet, and through careful questioning he may emphasize certain facts in such a way as to bring the Cabinet to his position. When Cabinet members disagree, he acts as moderator and may gain goodwill by seeing that each has a fair chance to air his views. Frequently the Governor can withhold his own opinion until he senses the drift of Cabinet discussion and gain good will by identifying himself with the current of group thinking. As chairman, he can recognize first a Cabinet member whose views he knows to agree with his own. Occasionally the Governor may find a valuable ally in Cabinet discussions by taking the part of one of the Cabinet's "elder statesmen," a veteran of many terms in his same public office.⁸

The Governor, however, is committed by his platform to a definite stand on public issues like the budget, new taxes, support of schools. He cannot assume the role of an impartial discussion leader encouraging genuine reflective thinking in Cabinet discussions. Instead, he must attempt to influence Cabinet members to support at least the key points of his platform which is no easy task.

III. PRESSURES UPON CABINET MEMBERS

Many pressures influence Cabinet members and determine the trend of their discussion and the nature of their votes on any particular issue. Six of the most important of these pressures are considered here.

One primary factor is job security. Each Cabinet member holds a responsible executive position which he wants to keep — or which, in some cases, he would like to use as a stepping stone to higher elective position. Since the Constitution of 1885 was ratified, only

⁸Based upon observation of Cabinet deliberations for a year.

four of Florida's Cabinet members have been defeated for reelection.⁹ This means that a Cabinet post is virtually a lifetime job unless a Cabinet member makes a serious blunder which can be singled out by some opponent. Members are usually, therefore, slow about expressing themselves vehemently on either side of a highly controversial issue.

A second determinant of Cabinet discussions is the need of each member for individuality. Cabinet members who "go along with the crowd" too easily may lose the respect of their colleagues, of their subordinates, of Florida legislators, and eventually of the public. Each man usually justifies his vote, therefore, upon every major issue.

Countering this need for individuality is a consistent attempt to present a united front to the state at large. Even though sharp dissension may rise over controversial issues in the Cabinet sessions, the minutes reveal few votes that are not unanimous. When unanimity rules, no single Cabinet member can be singled out by the public and the press for criticism; the Cabinet must be praised or blamed as a unit.

One excellent example of the strength of this drive for unity can be seen in discussion of the public school appropriation in Florida's 1951-52 budget. Members of the Cabinet, acting as the state Budget Commission, lined up on two sides: one favored raising the budget with a request for new taxes to provide for continued improvement of the school system under Florida's Minimum Foundation program; the other argued that the public could not stand more taxes and that budget requests should not exceed anticipated revenue.

Tremendous pressure was brought to bear upon the Cabinet by school organizations. Witnesses testified in Cabinet sessions to their drastic need for more money. On the other hand, taxpayer groups insisted that additional taxes would be too heavy a burden for the state to bear. After prolonged and sometimes sharp discussion, the Cabinet voted unanimously to recommend a budget within current revenues. Despite his own strong personal convictions State Superintendent of Public Instruction Thomas E. Bailey voted with the rest of the Cabinet. To satisfy various school groups, however, the Cabi-

⁹Interview with W. T. Cash, State Librarian. See also records of State Canvassing Board, 1885-1951. One of these four, Superintendent of Public Instruction William N. Sheats, was returned to office two terms later.

net included footnotes recommending additional amounts IF the legislature saw fit to provide additional revenue through new taxes.

The press of the state exerts considerable pressure upon the Cabinet. Experienced reporters follow the deliberations of the Cabinet carefully, although coverage is uneven and some important decisions are given little attention. The budget debates were extensively reported, some papers accusing the Cabinet of passing the buck to the legislature, while others praised the Cabinet for not raising expenditures and requiring new taxes.¹⁰ Quotations from Cabinet discussions may be seen frequently in leading Florida newspapers like the *Miami Herald* and *Miami Daily News*, *Tampa Tribune*, and the *Jacksonville Florida Times-Union*. The Governor's comments receive greatest attention from the press and he must therefore be even more careful than others in phrasing his statements. Each Cabinet member is, of course, likely to be quoted on his own field. He is more or less "on the spot" while the Cabinet considers the work of his own department.

A fifth factor frequently influencing the progress of Cabinet discussions is personal ambition. Members of the Cabinet sometimes try for the office of Governor, and in those cases the drive for job security is supplanted by the desire for attention and leadership.

If he plans to be a candidate for higher political office, the Cabinet member must guard his utterances carefully. Frequently his office brings him prestige and respect without embroiling him on one side or another of controversial state issues.¹¹ Especially in a one-party state like Florida, his political views are often shrouded in mystery. It would be dangerous for him to classify himself too early with either the liberal or conservative camp; on the other hand, he must speak frequently enough in Cabinet discussions to keep his name in the public eye.

Finally, one of the most obvious factors influencing the opinions and therefore the statements of the individual Cabinet member is the pressure of the agency or group with which he is concerned. The

¹⁰See *Tampa Morning Tribune*, *Miami Herald*, *Florida Times-Union*, from December 10 through December 22, 1950.

¹¹"The public knows where I stand on policies concerning my office, but they probably don't know where I stand on welfare, labor, and so forth." Richard Ervin, Attorney General of the State of Florida, interviewed February 13, 1951.

Attorney General must consider the position of the Florida Bar Association and law enforcement groups. The Commissioner of Agriculture pays attention to the opinions of farm organizations. The Comptroller listens carefully to the ideas of bankers and financial groups. The state Treasurer is also Insurance Commissioner and must win the confidence of powerful bank and trust groups. The Superintendent of Public Instruction feels always over his shoulder the eyes of the powerful and highly organized school lobby: the Florida Education Association, PTA groups, and county school boards. All groups are quick to condemn "their" Cabinet member if he does not adequately defend their special interests.

These factors, then, represent six of the most important pressures determining the nature of discussion in the Florida Cabinet. Many others could be mentioned: personal friendships or antagonisms, personal experiences or involvement with schools, old age pensions, forestry; the financial power of pressure groups; skill of state lobbyists.

IV. SUMMARY

This paper describes the unique Cabinet system in Florida, in which a group of independently elected administrative officials, functioning through open public discussion, exercise most of the executive authority of the State. The role of the Governor in Cabinet discussions is assessed: his position as chairman gives him some slight advantage in Cabinet deliberations, but for the most part he must rely upon strength of personality to win the support of his colleagues. Some of the most important pressures influencing the nature of the contributions of each Cabinet member, and the casting of his final vote, are these: job security, individuality, unity, the press, personal ambition, and a state department or pressure group.

The use of the board system throughout federal and state government makes the discussion process an integral part of administrative procedure. Greater effectiveness in government can come partly through greater effectiveness in the use of the democratic tool of free, public discussion. This requires, among other things, both careful analysis and objective recognition of the forces which affect the discussion process.

THE INTEGRATION OF PROFESSIONAL SERVICES IN TREATING ORGANIC DISORDERS OF SPEECH

GILBERT C. TOLHURST*

One of the possible implications inherent in the title of this paper is that there may need to be one individual who is responsible for the coordination of the services and the opinions of the various professions interested in the rehabilitation of those who have organic disorders of speech. However, in contra-distinction, it is proposed that an integration of the professional services be attempted with a minimum of "leadership" from a single individual or from single professional groups.

The chances for loss of objectivity are increased by the possibility of professional biases, natural enough, but present. Some of the professional biases that may operate to influence remedial procedures are seen if a strongly opinionated surgeon or plastic surgeon can offer only surgery as his solution. The orthodontist, or dentist, may see the problem only from the point of view of dental surgery, or having another bias, prothodontia. The orthopedist may have his particular solution to the majority of problems. Methods of adjustment or signs of psychic trauma may be the points of departure of the psychologist or psychiatrist. The speech correctionist can often become so oriented that the problem solution emphasizing speech correction as the major rehabilitation tool is attempted.

Several years ago the teaching tended to be that the speech correctionist should be the integrator of the "total rehabilitation program." The hypothesis was that he could act and think more objectively regarding "total" problems. In the framework of this philosophy many correctionists were "required" to take extensive courses in medical schools, schools of dentistry, and in clinical and abnormal psychology, etc., far beyond the stage of being acquainted with the problems and vocabulary of each area. Whether or not the effort expended and the knowledge obtained was worth the travail can only be evaluated by the individual in the specific situation in which he finds himself.

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At present the trend seems to be to consider members of the "total rehabilitation" group of experts as a *team* who have equally important functions and who share equally the responsibility concerning a specific handicapped individual. Recent articles and addresses by members of the medical, dental, and speech fields have stressed the need for coordination of services to the handicapped.¹⁻²⁻³ The point of view has been strongly stressed that the "team" should act as a consultant group minimizing the usefulness of a "coach" or a "captain" to set the procedural philosophy for the group. If a level of professional respect can be achieved among the members of such a "team," then the opinions and experiences of each member will forward any rehabilitation program rather than inflict strong biases that may tend to impede.

During a recent conference on speech and hearing problems held on the campus of Florida State University all but three of the nationally prominent "experts" took occasion to stress especially an important function of the "team" that has not, to my knowledge, been given such emphasis before, that of research. Dr. Spencer Brown of the University of Minnesota, pediatrician and speech pathologist, gave equal import to the research function of the group of professional consultants who comprise the organic "team" as well as the other two functions of service and education. Anyone who has worked with, or sought definite information about, organic disorders soon comes to the realization that specific knowledge is quite limited concerning etiologies, remedial procedures, or therapeutic techniques. Basic information on any and all of the above processes is sadly needed. Much of the arm-chair philosophizing that is now accepted as fact needs experimental testing under controlled conditions. The members of the "team" who have had experience and/or training in experimental design should see that the remedial procedures employed in rehabilitation are tested and modified in the light of controlled evidence.

¹E. T. McDonald and H. K. Baker, "Cleft Palate Speech," *Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders*, XVI (1951), 16.

²A. J. Lesser, "Some Principles in the Development of Services for Children with Hearing Impairment," *Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders*, XV (1950), 101-105.

³G. C. Tolhurst, "Speech Testing," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXIV (1950), 73-79.

Often the speech correctionist, because of his training, will have a wider background in research methods than the other members of the board of consultants and may need to be the initiating force in the research program. It is only from the efforts of widely scattered units attacking the omnipresent problems in different ways and under different conditions that some of the necessary answers will emerge.

Cerebral Palsy

Since the remedial procedures must all be undertaken in light of the physical condition and physical potentialities of the child the family doctor or the pediatrician should be a member of the "team" that should be consulted before each remedial step is attempted. In other words, the function of the pediatrician is to check and advise as to the physical maturation of the child. Often the other specialized areas are not sufficiently acquainted with the subtle changes that could either retard or facilitate the rehabilitation process and need the constant reminding that such consultation could provide.

Psychological assistance is another phase of the total problem that often some of the "experts" comprising the consultant group may tend to minimize. A clinical psychologist or psychiatrist can usually counsel the parents to the extent that possible parental feelings of overprotection or of rejection are not inhibitory, and the guidance given to the individual case in question can often change aggression or withdrawal to active cooperation. No matter how psychologically sophisticated the medical man or the speech correctionist may be, the psychologist can more efficiently utilize his techniques and hence save valuable time and effort.

The obvious function of administering psychometric tests to arrive at a level of educability and emotional stability fall in the category of the psychologist. This testing function can also indicate many time saving methods of procedure. A recent book by Strauss and Lehtinen⁴ outlines several methods of testing, based on well controlled experimental evidence, that differentially indicate whether the child is brain injured or feeble minded, a pertinent factor in remedial training.

The orthopedist will be another member of the team whose func-

⁴A. A. Strauss and L. E. Lehtinen, *Psychopathology and Education of the Brain Injured Child* (New York, 1950).

tion is both advisory and remedial. It is he, along with the pediatrician who decides whether the individual case in question shall have prosthetic appliances fitted, tractions, restraining devices, relaxation surgery, etc. The orthopedist will be the one who writes the prescription that the prosthesis fulfills. Close periodic check and examinations are necessary to see if the remedial operative procedures are acting well, or if the prosthesis is fitting and securing the desired effects, that the proper physical therapy program is carried out, and that the parent (or guardian) is fulfilling his obligation.

The physical therapist will make the actual application of the orthopedists' recommendations and may in a sense work "under" him. However, many medical men are coming to rely on the knowledge and training of the physical therapist to the extent that their recommendations are very general and the techniques and methods employed are the therapist's responsibility. Also, many of the techniques of the other professional areas can be incorporated into the work of the physical therapist. Conversely, some of the techniques of the physical therapist can be highly useful to those of the other areas. For example, the speech correctionist can often use some of the exercises employed to strengthen large muscle groups to elicit vocal responses when voluntary speech is almost non-existent.

One of the factors in the rehabilitation process is the hope and goal that the handicapped individual will be able to be partially or wholly economically self-sustaining. The function of the occupational therapist will be to devise some educative processes that will train an individual to do work in line with his abilities and potentialities. Not only can the occupational therapist aid in fitting an individual to earn a livelihood, but, and this is perhaps almost equally important, provide the handicapped individual with a skill that may serve only as a hobby. The physically handicapped individual usually has more leisure time than others not so handicapped, and if the secondary skill, or hobby, can provide an escape or relief from the boredom that often surrounds a handicapped individual the chances for psychological problems arising will almost certainly diminish. Such a training program can more effectively grow out of the combined consultation and cooperation of the consultant-rehabilitation "team."

One function of the group of experts that falls into the three categories mentioned earlier is that of education. Jointly and indi-

ividually, the group should be responsible for the training of their respective students or disciples, the several members of the group of colleagues forming the "team," the members of their respective professions, the parents of the handicapped child, and the general public both in respect to support and sympathy. It is proposed that an important member be added to the usual "team," that of the professional educator. It seems that such a member could give valuable aid to the methods employed by the psychologist, the occupational therapist, and the speech correctionist. All of the educational functions mentioned above could perhaps be facilitated by scientifically established educational methods. Any extension of the service function of the professional "team" could be abetted by the educator using the wide sociological contact of the schools. At present, the rehabilitation "team" seems perhaps to plan only to the point of enabling the handicapped to be ready for education. It may be a more efficient process if the education could be more closely coordinated with the other more remedial processes.

One possible member of the team could be the neurologist. Certainly this branch of medicine should be used as consultant with most cases of cerebral palsy. However, the availability of such a service consultant is limited and there are many areas where such a specialist would be lacking. For this reason, we have not made him one of the "required" members of the active board of experts.

The final member of the cerebral palsy "team" to receive mention here has been purposely held until last. To most people in the field of speech the function of the speech correctionist is well and perhaps intimately known. The correctionist should use the advice, counsel, information, and perhaps the techniques of the other consultant members and attempt to give the handicapped individual as high a level of communication ability as he is capable of achieving. How such individual training can be best integrated into the total program is a matter that concerns not only the speech correctionist but each member of the professional group as well. Several of them, in their own way, can incorporate the speech training methods into their own specialized function.

The speech correctionist should support strongly, even if he is not able to initiate, the research function of the rehabilitation "team." Testing the theories, hypotheses, and hunches that are used in practice today by rigorous, controlled experimentation will possibly tend

to eliminate the several biases and "schools" that are currently prominent. Incidentally, one of the best methods for securing interest and cooperation from a highly biased "authority" is to suggest that a program of research should be tried that will test that expert's theory, procedure, etc. If such an individual considers himself a scientist at all he will usually agree to such a program.

Cleft Palate

The members of the "team" that will be concerned with the problem arising from cleft palate condition will have some of the members that were discussed previously in regard to problems of cerebral palsy. The functions and orientation will, of course, be somewhat different but many similar problems are encountered.

The pediatrician, or family doctor, will need to indicate the manner and type of nutrition, if feeding is a problem. The time and extent of possible operative procedures will be decided in light of the physical condition of the child. The opinions of the plastic surgeon and the speech correctionist will also aid in arriving at this latter decision. The physical well being of the child is of prime importance during the early post-natal period so that any remedial procedures should not inhibit or interfere with the physical state. The pediatrician can be of great service in educating the parents of the child in question as to the means of rehabilitation and the chances of total rehabilitation.

With the birth of a cleft palate child the chances are great that the parents will exhibit reactions of overprotection or rejection toward the child. Either attitude will tend to retard or perhaps inhibit normal maturation. The psychologist member of the "team" with his counseling and re-evaluation techniques can usually aid the parent to achieve a healthy, more objective attitude toward the problem. His stressing to the parents that the causative factors, as far as we know, do not appear to be strictly hereditary or the result of possible moral infractions will often help to change preconceived attitudes and thus make the role of the parent an asset rather than a liability.

The plastic surgeon and orthodontist have as their primary function the making of a cosmetically satisfactory lip and a palate that is functional for speech as well as for mastication. The decision regarding surgical procedures to achieve closure or whether prosthetic devices should be employed should be a consultation matter for the

whole rehabilitation staff. Certainly, if the resultant closure accomplished by surgery is not functional for speech then the techniques of the orthodontist and prosthodontist need careful consideration. It may also be that the individual case needs some of both services to affect a functional closure.

The photographs that the plastic surgeon, the orthodontist, or the prosthodontist usually keep, showing the pre-operative condition and post-operative results, can be one of the most effective means of educating the parents of the cleft palate child to a more hopeful attitude. Also, a systematized collection of such photographs could form the research data on operative techniques or prosthetic procedures *which when related to speech patterns* could serve a high evaluative or re-evaluative purpose.

The function of the physical therapist will not be so vitally important in cleft palate problems as with other forms of organic disorders. However, gentle massage, correctly applied can often prevent serious adhesions and diminish the formation of excessive scar tissue in post-operative cases. The therapist needs to be a member of the cleft palate team.

The speech correctionist in regards to the cleft palate "team" should be an audiologist as well, or he should have such services available. The need for an accurate evaluation of hearing in problems of cleft palate is now almost an established fact because of the high incidence of hearing loss in the population of such cases.⁵

The speech correctionist needs to have sufficient knowledge in order adequately to serve as a pre-operative or pre-prosthetic consultant. The restraining function and the extent of the need for retraining of speech of the cleft palate child is now almost a matter of universal acceptance and need not be amplified further here. One of the ways in which speech training can be most rapidly facilitated is for the correctionist to spend part of his time explaining to the parent what is to be done, what each step is to be, how each step is to be accomplished, and further what he can specifically do to carry on the speech work started by the correctionist.

The cleft palate child rarely will need special educational facilities. However, the professional educator can greatly aid in the adjustment of the child to his school and, it is hoped, the school to the

⁵Johnson, et. al., *Speech Handicapped School Children* (New York, 1948), 284-285.

child. The individual often needs to be given specialized vocational guidance and training and perhaps additional help in order that he may have a "sense of belonging."

There are other professions that have not been mentioned as part of the "team." Certainly the advisory function and assistance of these services should be tapped if needed.

Other Disorders

The other less common organic disorders of aphasia, retarded speech, oesophageal speech, paralysis, etc., could each have a special "team." However, many of the professional services needed for one of the above will be approximately the same as in the cerebral palsy or cleft palate board of experts. The functions of each consultant will vary with the specific problem. The examples of cerebral palsy and cleft palate "teams" are merely given to illustrate the scope of the remedial problems and to show how, at the present time, these problems can probably best be solved. It seems difficult to conceive that a program consisting of such a variety of professional interests represented on the "team" could resort to the practice of treating "types" of cases. This has often been done in the past when one or the other of the professional groups have been able to dominate.

The functions of the "team" rests on the basic assumption that the individual members share an equal professional status and that each has equal consultant value in regard to a specific handicapped individual under consideration. It is suggested that the above programs be tested under experimental conditions and in various areas of the country to determine whether the assumption be valid or not.

MEMORY IN RHETORIC

DONALD E. HARGIS*

Rhetorical theory is concerned with five elements in the preparation of a speech: invention, arrangement, style, memory, and delivery. The fourth element, memory, has received less attention than any of the others, historically as well as in contemporary research. By outlining "memory" from its sophistic origin to the beginning of the eighteenth century, we can hope to aid in establishing its place in the history of rhetoric.

Memory is that consistent of rhetoric concerned with the storing up in the mind of principles, bodies of factual material, lines of argument, and phrases which will be ready for us in a speech. Memory embodies more than the retention of words — of committing a speech to memory — even though this is one aspect of Memory and frequently the only one associated with it.¹

General memory, the storing up of knowledge through reading and study, and formal memory, the development of mnemonic devices for retaining words and materials for a speech or for speeches, appear and disappear in rhetorical history, alone and paired together. General memory bears a relationship to invention, by holding in mind the "available means of persuasion" once they are found; while formal memory relates to the exact retention of words, phrases, arrangements, and the like. This two-fold definition will serve as the basis for an examination of the principle rhetorical writings.

I.

Hippias of Elis, who lived in the fifth century B.C., might well be called the "father of memory" as a rhetorical principle, as he appears to be the only Sophist who paid attention to it.² He felt that the training of the memory was an essential discipline in the

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¹K. G. Hance, "The Elements of the Rhetorical Theory of Phillips Brooks," *Speech Monographs*, V (1938), 36.

²B. Smith, "Hippias and the Lost Canon of Rhetoric," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XII, 3 (Oct., 1926), 130.

education of an orator. Not only did he propose that one should have a mental image to stand for an object, but he also advocated the use of symbols to stand for abstract concepts and non-concrete ideas. His preoccupation with mnemonics indicates the basic character of his rhetorical theory. At the same time, there is reference to memory in the broad sense in Hippias' order to the orator to "know all things," the typical sophistic injunction.³

The two great writers of the Greek classical period, Plato and Aristotle, were concerned with memory by implication only and in the broadest use of the term — the mind as the storehouse of knowledge. Plato, although obviously opposing any elaborate outline of rhetoric, mentioned memory by indirection, by holding writing as inferior to recollection [memory]. "Writing is like painting; it is silent ever, and cannot, unlike speech, be adapted to the individuals."⁴ He would have the orator know the truth and then present that truth in his speech. If the truth were to be held, once it was known, it must be held by memory. In the *Rhetoric* of Aristotle there is no mention of memory as a formal element. One inference can, however, be drawn from the demand for knowledge which he made of the orator.⁵ If the person were to know all of the things which were asked of him, then he must use memory in its general sense. Certainly neither Plato nor Aristotle were interested in mnemonics.

Cornificius seems to have been the first rhetorician to use the five-fold division of rhetoric which included memory as the fourth element.⁶ The first full treatise with a detailed discussion of memory in the five-fold division is Cicero's *De Oratore*. The basis of Cicero's rhetorical theory was general memory, a knowledge of all things on the part of the orator. "What can I say of the repository for all things, the memory, which, unless it be made the keeper of the matter and words that are the fruits of thought and invention, all the talents of the orator, we see, though they be of the highest degree of excellence, will be of no avail?"⁷

When he included memory as the fourth element, he went to

³Ibid., 131.

⁴The *Dialogues of Plato*, trans. and ed. B. Jowett (New York, 1937), I, 278.

⁵Aristotle, *Rhetic*, trans. and ed. L. Cooper (New York, 1932).

⁶Cicero, *De Oratore*, trans. and ed. A. S. Wilkins (Oxford, 1890), 57.

⁷Cicero, *De Oratore*, trans. and ed. J. S. Watson (London, 1903), 147.

greater length than any other contemporary rhetorician to explain its use.

How great the benefit of memory is to the orator, how great the advantage, how great the power, what need is there for me to observe? Why should I remark how excellent a thing it is to retain the instructions which you have received with the cause, and the opinion which you have formed upon it? to keep all your thoughts upon it fixed in your mind, all your arrangements of language marked out there? to listen to him from whom you receive any information, or to him to whom you have to reply, with such power of retention, that they seem not to have poured their discourse into your ears, but to have engraven it on your mental tablet? They alone accordingly, who have a vigorous memory, know what, and how much, and in what manner they are about to speak; to what they have replied, and what remains unanswered; and they also remember many courses that they have formerly adopted in other cases, and many which they have heard from others.⁸

The course for the training of memory was set by Cicero when he observed, "I must, however, acknowledge that nature is the chief author of this qualification [memory], yet there is scarcely anyone of so strong a memory as to retain the order of his language and thoughts without a previous arrangement and observation of heads; nor is anyone of so weak a memory as not to receive assistance from this practice and exercise."⁹ The "practice and exercise" was developed first in a discussion of the use of the "mental eye," mental imagery, and then of the use of symbols to represent ideas. Cicero felt that the devices, such as images and symbols, were excellent aids to the memory.

The memory of things is the proper business of the orator; this we may be able to impress upon ourselves by the creation of imaginary figures, aptly arranged, to represent particular heads, so that we may recollect thoughts by images, and their order by place. . . . Thought, therefore, a memory cannot be entirely formed by this practice, if there is none given by nature; yet certainly, if there is latent faculty, it may be called forth.¹⁰

⁸*Ibid.*, 326-7.

⁹*Ibid.*, 327

¹⁰*Ibid.*, 328.

Cicero fully integrated memory into his rhetoric and placed it for the first time as one of the five elements, stressing it in both the general and the formal senses.

Quintilian injected memory as an element in his theory of oratory when he asserted that all departments of rhetoric must be coordinated in the animating principle of memory.¹¹ The emphasis was first placed on it in the general sense with all education depending on memory as the storehouse of knowledge. It was related to oratory with the claim that good memory was the treasure house of eloquence and that it had brought oratory to its position of glory.¹² Aside from stressing the general use of memory, he made specific application of it, saying that it gave the orator not merely his thoughts, but his words as well. Quintilian did not believe in the use of images and symbols; his rules came closer to those of modern psychology. The orator should divide the speech into the natural sections and then memorize a section at a time. The symbol was to be used only in connection with an especially difficult passage. The memorizing was to be done from the orator's own handwritten copy of the speech in order that he might take advantage of the writing as an aid to memory.

According to Quintilian, practice and industry were the bases for cultivating the memory.¹³ There was emphasis on the details of memory, when he pointed out that the orator must memorize his speech exactly, word for word, as it was written and deliver it in that way. "Why should the orator write the speech if he is not to memorize it exactly?"¹⁴ However, the orator was enjoined never to give the impression of this exact memorization in his delivery. His program of education for the orator demanded that the memorization be exact and without prompting. Thus we see that memory is important in Quintilian's rhetoric and in his conception of the education of the orator.

Unfortunately, the whole of the *Rhetorica Ad Herennium* of the

¹¹Quintilian, *Institutio Oratoria*, trans. and ed. H. E. Butler (New York, 1922), 213.

¹²Ibid.

¹³Ibid., 235.

¹⁴Ibid., 239.

Roman period is not yet available in an English translation.¹⁵ From commentaries it appears that it had the most complete exposition of memory to be found in ancient works, particularly in the presentation of mnemonic principles. "Memoria" was listed as the fourth of the essentials of rhetoric with the definition that, "Through memory, the mind keeps a firm hold on the thoughts, the expressions, and the plan of the speech."¹⁶ The unknown author went beyond Cicero and Quintilian in his detailed treatment. This treatise was of importance for its influence on rhetorical thought through much of the Middle Ages and into the Renaissance.

II.

The rhetoric of the neo-sophistic period was a strange mixture of the traditional rhetoric of the classical period and the perverse stylistic interpretations of it as dictated by circumstances. From the second to the fifth centuries the Empire of Rome held sway, and free institutions and free speech disappeared. As a result, the rhetorical emphasis was on style and delivery rather than on ideas.

Seneca's *Controversiae* was typical of the period with an approach to rhetoric through a multitude of memorized stock cases and through the declamatory method. "Though Seneca may well have used published material, his extensive reports, as it were verbatim, at once attest the grasp of the ancient 'memoria' . . ."¹⁷ Not only in his own method, but also in his theory of rhetoric, formal memory was necessary to remember the stock cases and the style of declamation. "Memory thus trained, was no longer the orator's command of his material; it was the actor's command of words."¹⁸ The neo-sophist did not need to think, but only needed to depend upon his memory for his materials and to be clever in putting them together. This method of memorizing was taken mainly from the *Ad Herennium* with its detailed discussion of mnemonics. The whole educational system was calculated to produce good memory. "The grammarian's

¹⁵Book I is translated in "Rhetorica Ad Herennium: Commentary and Translation of Book I," Nadeau, R., *Speech Monographs*, XVI, 1 (August, 1949), 57; however, the detailed discussion of memory is in Book III.

¹⁶Ibid., 59.

¹⁷C. S. Baldwin, *Ancient Rhetoric and Poetic* (New York, 1924), 90.

¹⁸C. S. Baldwin, *Medieval Rhetoric and Poetic* (New York, 1928), 15.

school supplied facts which had to be remembered in declamations, and the rhetor introduced a host of technicalities which had also to be kept in memory.¹⁹ In Ausinius' letter to his grandson the "good boy" was the one with the long memory.²⁰ It was this habit of depending upon formal memory which was the heart of the rhetoric of the period.

In this world of sophistic rhetoric, St. Augustine made a closer return to the classics than any other rhetorician until the end of the Middle Ages. His rhetoric was based primarily on Cicero and called "for skill in reasoning and a memory trained to bring in objections and difficulties where they can best be met."²¹ The speaker was admonished to memorize his materials, especially his Biblical materials so that they were at his command; but, at the same time, the preacher was warned that he should not speak regularly from memory but should adapt to his audiences.²² However, in talking about the training of the orator, he ruled that the young orator might take what had been written and memorize it, in that way learning to speak more effectively.²³ Augustine's only rule was to understand before attempting to memorize; one should not memorize a passage, as from the Bible, unless he first understood it.²⁴ The general absence of rules and the lack of emphasis placed the stress on memory in the general sense, although formal memory was considered in connection with the training of the young speaker. What Augustine had to say about memory was in direct contrast to the formal use of the concept in the contemporary schools.

III.

As the *Ad Herennium* was almost the only ancient rhetoric known in the Middle Ages, its influence was tremendous. That the detailed section on memory impressed the writers on rhetoric is very much in evidence in the later Middle Ages with the beginning of the classi-

¹⁹T. J. Haarhoff, *Schools of Gaul* (Oxford, 1920), 91.

²⁰*Ibid.*, 92.

²¹Baldwin, 68.

²²St. Augustine, "De Doctrina Christiana," *Patristic Studies*, XXIII (Washington, 1930), 97.

²³*Ibid.*, 189.

²⁴*Ibid.*, 59.

cal revival.²⁵ At that time it was used and copied in all of the elements, but particularly on Memory.²⁶

Alcuin, writing in 794, quoted his definition of memory directly from Cicero and expanded it only by saying, "We do not have other injunctions upon this subject [memory], except exercise in memorizing, practice in writing, and application to studious activity."²⁷ While the definition placed Alcuin close to Cicero, yet the lack of development separated the two in practice. Notker Labeo wrote his *New Rhetoric* in about 1000, listing memory, but the discussion of the element was brief and based largely on the *Ad Herennium*.²⁸ The major emphasis still was on style and delivery. As far as one is able to discover, there was almost no mention, in this period, of memory in the sense in which Cicero and Quintilian included it in their discussions.

As rhetoric became one of the seven liberal arts, it degenerated into style alone. There was no place for memory except as a means of remembering the multitude of stylistic devices. Isidore, one of the typical commentators on the seven liberal arts, mentioned all parts of rhetoric, including "memoria," in its traditional fourth place, but did not discuss or evaluate it.²⁹ Walafrid Strabo did no more than list memory.³⁰ This mere mention was more than typical of similar treatises of the period.

Memory in its formal sense did play a part in the schools of the time and was considered in that relationship in such a work as the *Metalogicus* of John of Salisbury.³¹ "Since memory is strengthened and the talent is sharpened by practice, he would spur some on by exhortation, others by punishments, to imitate what they had

²⁵D. L. Clark, *Rhetoric and Poetry in the Renaissance* (New York, 1922), 56.

²⁶W. P. Sandford, "English Rhetoric Reverts to Classicism," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XV, 4 (Dec., 1929), 504-25.

²⁷W. S. Howell, *The Rhetoric of Alcuin and Charlemagne*, "The Dialogue of the Most Wise King Charles and the Master Alcuin Concerning Rhetoric and the Virtues (Princeton, 1941), 137.

²⁸O. A. L. Dieter, "The Rhetoric of Notker Labeo," *Papers in Rhetoric*, ed. D. C. Bryant (Saint Louis, 1940), 30.

²⁹Isidore, *Etymologiae*, trans. and ed. W. M. Lindsay (Oxford, 1910), II, iii.

³⁰Baldwin, 142.

³¹John of Salisbury, "Metalogicus," in Baldwin, *Medieval Rhetoric and*

heard."³² Of the teaching of Bernard of Chartres it was said, "Stories and poems, he used to say, were to be read carefully, not on the run; and of each pupil he required as a daily task something memorized with careful attention."³³ In a book presenting both poetica and dictamen under rhetorica, Johannes de Garlandia discussed the art of memorizing. He gave memory as one of the parts of rhetoric; and was one of the first authors in some time to develop it, but only in a very formal and restricted sense. To him it was merely mnemonic, consisting of areas and ways of remembering things.³⁴ Until the classical concepts were rediscovered, memory all but disappeared. It came to light only as an echo of Cicero or Quintilian through the *Ad Herennium*, and even in the echoing was merely a listing.

In the field of preaching some use was made of general memory. However, as the tractates on preaching began to emphasize more and more the set means of amplification through the commonplaces, formal memory entered the scheme of things.³⁵ Although the commonplace did allow for the application of the preacher's experience; however, any form as set as these were, tended toward fixed methods. Thus, the preacher would use the same commonplace over and over in the same way, memorizing it formally. The very tradition of the period was bound to influence toward the use of formal memory in speaking. The lack of printed books and the dearth of written manuscripts meant that there was increased use of memory. Although memory was neglected in the formal writings on rhetoric, it still played a part in practice which was of no mean importance.

IV.

With the revival of learning in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries and the coming of the Renaissance, a new light was shed on rhetoric different from the "presistent tradition of style" of the pre-

Poetic, 156-68.

³²*Ibid.*, 162.

³³*Ibid.*, 163

³⁴*Ibid.*, 192.

³⁵H. Caplan, "Classical Rhetoric and the Medieval Theory of Preaching," *Classical Philology*, XXVIII, 4 (1936), 73; "Rhetorical Invention in Some Medieval Tractates on Preaching," *Speculum*, II (1927), 284.

ceding one thousand years. The primary influence which shifted the emphasis was the return to the classical tradition with the rediscovery of Aristotle, Cicero, and Quintilian. This did not mean that there was an immediate return to classical tradition, but it did mean that there was a re-introduction of the five elements.

Typical works of the early fifteenth century did little with memory. Caxton in *Myrrour and dyscrysycyon of the worlde* had a short passage on "ars memoratina," which was no more than a definition of the term.³⁶ In the *Pastime of Pleasure*, Hawes briefly related "Memory, the v. part of rhetoric," to the sophistic concept of mnemonics,³⁷ and suggested that invention is derived, among other things, from memory.³⁸ It was only during the discussion of invention that Cox in *The Arte or Crafte of Rhetoryke* spoke of memory. "Inuencyon is comprehended in certain placys as the Rhetoriciens call them out of whom he that knoweth the faculte may fetche easly suche thynges as be mete for the mater that he shal speke of."³⁹ This concept of invention as holding matter ready for use implied that memory was brought into play.

Probably the most extensive treatment of memory since the *Ad Herennium* was in *The Arte of Rhetorique* by Thomas Wilson. After he had discussed invention, disposition, and style, he said, "When all these things are had together it auaileth little, if men have no memorie to containe them. The Memorie therefore must be cherished, the which is a fast holding both of matter and words couched together, to confirme any cause."⁴⁰ This was the concept of general memory, connecting it with invention. His discussion of memory as a formal element began with the statement that though a man have understanding and judgment, they are of little value without memory. ". . . and shal not an Oratour haue in store good matter, in the chest of his memorie, to vse and bestow in the time of necessitie? . . . Memorie is the power of the minde that conteineth things receiued, that calleth to minde things past, and renueth of fresh things for-

³⁶L. Cox, *The Arte or Crafte of Rhetoryke*, ed. F. I. Carpenter (Chicago, 1899), 25.

³⁷*Ibid.*, 26.

³⁸Clark, 54.

³⁹Cox, 44.

⁴⁰T. Wilson, *The Arte of Rhetorique*, ed. G. H. Mair (Oxford, 1909), 6.

gotten."⁴¹ The rules for formal memory which followed were a paraphrase of those found in the *Ad Herennium*. In the work, however, the two types of memory, general and formal, were outlined more precisely than by any author for a number of centuries previous.

In Thomas Vicar's *Manuductio ad Artum Rhetoricam* the only information about memory was the traditional definition.⁴² Charles Butler's book, *Oratoriae Libri Duo*, had a limited and sketchy discussion of memory closely modeled on that of Wilson.⁴³ In 1637 Thomas Hobbes did a paraphrase of Aristotle's *Rhetoric*. In this philosophy of speech, imagination was fundamental to speaking, and imagination and memory were but one thing.⁴⁴ Hobbes felt that in order to speak the individual must have things held in the mind to use in speaking.

Up to the eighteenth century there was little change in the form of rhetoric, and there is little more of interest to be said about memory. Rhetoric had reverted to the classical forms; and it did or did not include memory as one of the elements, depending on the influences and trends which the author was following. If the *Ad Herennium*, Cicero, or Quintilian were being used, memory was included with at least some of the mnemonic principles! If Aristotle or one of the early Renaissance writers were followed, it was disregarded or only mentioned casually. With the reintroduction of the classical precepts, invention was again included in rhetoric, and with this inclusion memory became, by implication at least, the storehouse of knowledge to be used in the preparation of the speech.

V.

It is evident that not all of the writers on rhetoric are mentioned in this survey, and that there are many gaps in time; yet these omissions of persons or historical periods do not indicate unintentional neglect. Many rhetoricians made no mention of memory as a formal element, nor was it included in their writings even by implication. Also, in many periods the treatment was at best cursory or a

⁴¹Ibid., 209.

⁴²Sandford, 514.

⁴³Ibid., 521.

⁴⁴L. Thonssen, "Hobbes' Philosophy of Rhetoric," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XVIII, 2 (April, 1932), 200.

direct copying of an earlier work, not only with nothing new added, but with a less satisfactory treatment than was given in the original source. These general trends and the source of the inspiration have been indicated.

While the summary survey fulfills the purpose of this study, showing the regard in which memory was held in the various periods in the history of rhetoric to the beginning of the eighteenth century, still some general conclusions can be drawn from the materials.

1. Memory was considered directly or indirectly throughout all of the history of rhetoric, varying widely in importance and depending upon the theorists and the times.
2. The concept of general memory, the recall of what the speaker already knows for use in a speech, was considered of importance in all periods of rhetoric in remembering ideas and rhetorical principles, with particular relationship to the idea of invention as developed by Aristotle. Only when there was extreme emphasis on set rhetorical forms and predetermined ideas was the usefulness of general memory open to question.
3. Formal memory, the application of mnemonic devices, reached its high point in periods of decadency in oratory and rhetorical writing, when the concept of invention was lost and set forms and formulae were stressed. At these times memory became an absurd hodge-podge of contrivances and figures.
4. Memory deserves a place in rhetoric, neither alone in the formal sense nor in the general sense only, but in the best combination of the two as developed by the classical writers, Cicero and Quintilian.
5. With contemporary emphasis on extempore speaking, general memory should have special consideration by the writers on the theory of public address as teachers of public speaking come closer and closer to the Ciceronian ideal that the public speaker must be the most learned of all men.

SOUTHERN MATERIALS FOR GRADUATE
RESEARCH IN THEATRE

MARIAN GALLAWAY*

Unused Southern material for graduate research in theatre means primarily, perhaps, historical material. There is, however, a tremendous amount of theatre material for research in the South which is not specifically historical. This discussion, therefore, is divided into two parts: (1) history of the theatre and (2) research in current theatre.

The accurate study of American theatre history may be said to have begun with the work of Arthur Hobson Quinn at the University of Pennsylvania. Quinn's students all over the United States are making minute studies of specific areas as doctoral dissertations. Among the areas in the South that have been studied are the Mississippi River from New Orleans to St. Louis in W. G. B. Carson's *Theatre on the Frontier*; Charleston in Eola Willis's *The Charleston Theatre*; the area of Vicksburg and Natchez in a doctor's dissertation by Joseph Free. Some work has been done on the New Orleans theatre and some on the Pensacola theatre, but the field has hardly been opened for the areas between the Mississippi and the Atlantic Ocean. We know, for example, that the town of Huntsville, Alabama was the first Alabama town in which Sol Smith's Company played. So far no new information has come to light on that event nor on the subsequent theatre history of that town. Mobile and Montgomery were good theatre towns before 1900, yet very little has been done in their theatre history. Richmond, Virginia was on the main eastern circuit out of New York at the beginning of the 19th Century and had theatrical entertainment as far back as the Hallams in the 18th Century. Williamsburg, Virginia which claims the site of the first theatre activity in America, must be rich in memoirs. Savannah, Georgia used an old mulberry barn for theatre entertainment until the barn collapsed; and the old Savannah Theatre, torn down only a year ago, was the scene for performances of Bernhardt, Duse, De Wolf Hopper, William Faversham, Southern, Marlowe, and all the

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great stars of the nineteenth century. Savannah, too, was the circuit of the Jamaica Company and had a lively theatre history until the road died. Jacksonville and St. Augustine must have had histories comparable to that of the Savannah theatre. Much of the material on these areas has already been lost. What remains should be utilized before it follows the dusty road of the players who created it.

In the matter of historical biography, the South has not a very wide range of choice. Two outstanding personalities of the current stage who claim the South as their home and whose biographies have not yet been written are Tallulah Bankhead of Montgomery, Alabama and Charles Coburn of Savannah, Georgia. The time is ripe for these biographies to be written, and both of these artists would probably willingly cooperate in such a biography.

There seems to be little favor, however, of intensive work on personalities of little influence. For example, there is possibly a master's thesis in a Mrs. A. B. French, one-time member of Sol Smith's Company, whose husband died leaving her in possession of a show boat in the 1890's. In order to carry on the business of the show boat, Mrs. French became the only woman in the world to obtain a pilot's license. Mrs. French married a Mr. Tomlinson and settled in a small Alabama town to end her days in 1924. A niece survives who might be able to give clues to the history of this old actress, but she was a star of such small magnitude that the Chamber of Commerce, in answering questions about her, uses a paragraph to promote local industries and a sentence about Mrs. Tomlinson.

Franklin Knower in *Speech Monographs*, March 1950, listed 42 theses in theatre history, and C. M. Getchell listed more in the *Southern Speech Journals* of March 1951 and 1951. A quick glance at the titles of these papers suggests that much of the so-called research in theatre history depends on secondary sources. The theses cannot be any more accurate or comprehensive than their sources. I do not deny the value of these papers to the student, but it seems pointless to encumber the library shelves with them. Graduate research in theatre history should investigate primary sources, play-bills, programs, newspaper reviews, memoirs, and eye-witness accounts.

Southern materials are not limited to the past. Much exists all around us in the present, an understanding of which will give tools for doing a better job. Theatre people are more likely to get excited

about this kind of research than about the past. As artists, they are practical and are concerned with what they learn only because of what they may do with it. The most important end of research is insight and the stimulation of creative activity. For theatre people and artists in general, fact is less productive than the area of speculation that is glimpsed through the gate of a new fact.

Theatre research, therefore, need not mean exhuming the dead. Many areas in the South have lively community theatres with interesting histories. The *Vieux Carre'* and the *Dock Street Theatre* have already been subjects of research. The Joe Jefferson players of Mobile have not yet been written about, nor have Fred Koch's ventures in Florida, and surely there must be any number of other groups whose history would not only be interesting but might also help to formulate principles of organization and management.

One interesting research is a questionnaire survey of dramatic activity in specific areas. At a time when the idea of a state theatre has become alluring, it is necessary to know what the theatre-going habits of the public are. Such a survey made last year in Alabama revealed, for example, that there is not a single paid community theatre director in the state and in only two cities in Alabama has there ever been a paid director. The effect of this survey indicates the need for wide-spread missionary work over the state before demanding immediate support for a state theatre.

Similar studies should be made of the backgrounds of teachers of dramatics in high schools and colleges. If it becomes evident that lack of training on the part of the teacher is responsible for lack of interest among the students, such a thesis would have practical value. If not, it might indicate other reasons for lack of interest which could be investigated. Another survey should be made of the physical facilities for dramatics in the high schools of the state. Still another should be made on rehearsal and performance discipline in high school and college dramatics. These studies might cast some light on the reasons that graduate students enter college courses in dramatics woefully unprepared in theatre history, stage-craft and design, acting theory, and directing theory.

It would be interesting to know what has happened to Southern college graduates specializing in dramatics. A questionnaire should seek information that would answer at least two questions. First: how adequate was his preparation for the jobs he held the first five

years after leaving college? Second: to what extent has he fulfilled the aims he held in college? In the same vein an analysis should be made of the factors which apparently make it more difficult for a Southern actor to standardize his speech than for a Northern actor.

Another survey that would be extremely helpful would be comparing the dramatic curricula in Southern colleges and universities with institutions of the same size in other areas.

In addition to the survey type of thesis certain types of experiment need to be made upon the nature of acting and the actor and upon the nature of the audience. Among masters and doctors dissertations in the past a good sprinkling of titles indicates a rising interest in the characteristics that distinguish the actor from other kinds of people. Not very much of a positive nature has been proved, partly because the human mind is too complex to permit the isolation of factors. From the evidence so far available the actor is little different from anyone else, yet any director can spot an actor at tryouts. What are these hunches to which he is responding? How does the actor's "vitality" differ from that of a first-class athlete? What mental activity occurs in the actor that does not occur in the perceptive reader? Why does one actor engender kindly feelings in an audience while another does not? These are large questions and perhaps we will never know the full answer, but we can have the help of psychologists and psychiatrists and medical doctors to gain some fragment of insight. In the solution of these problems a single institution will make small headway because by and large each institution has few samples each year to experiment upon. My suggestion would be that several institutions in the South work together in this field with a committee to determine methods of experimentation and standards of judgment. What we cannot do alone, we might, perhaps, do together.

Another topic which has come in for its share of research lately is the topic of empathy, or, to use a less shop-worn phrase, audience-behavior. Audience-response has been investigated by questionnaires, measured upon dials, and described by skilled observers. Perhaps no accurate description of audience response can be made without the help of sound movies, but at Alabama we are currently engaged in an attempt to describe what the audience does at performances. We believe this research will be of great interest to the directors, in indicating differences of gross behavior to quiet scenes, scenes of

violent action, moments of pathos, and moments of comedy.

Southern materials from the past provide us only one kind of graduate research in theatre. The life around us gives us an inexhaustible supply of unused Southern materials.

Summarizing, I should urge anyone who knows of sources of historical material such as letters, diaries, playbills, reviews, to write at once to the head of the Speech Department or Theatre in his state university, so that students can be assigned to work on these materials before they perish. Lacking such sources, however, we still have plenty to work on in the current state of theatrical production in various areas and in the psychology and behavior of theatre workers in the South.

THE TECHNICAL STUDENT VOTES FOR EXPOSITION

LOUIS HALL SWAIN*

When the instructor says, "Public speaking is practical," he probably means that students in his course practice certain useful skills—that the shorter his course is, the more they concentrate on the most useful. It is at this point that Prophecy must rear his head and select his spokesmen, for who is to say what skills will be needed most?

The first spokesman has usually been the teacher who often considered the question of content a purely rhetorical one. He said, in effect, "Man is the only constant: he speaks; he listens. What course to offer, or what to emphasize in it, I shall determine by asking myself and my tradition three questions: What is man-the-speaker like? What is man-the-listener like? and What is their product (the speech) like?"

Short courses based on the teacher's traditional answers to these three questions have probably been most relevant to the student's future when such courses emphasized man as speaker or listener, and least relevant when they emphasized a particular speech purpose or content. Man may have been almost the same for twenty centuries, but nobody ever felt a need to explain the automatic pilot to Ben Hur or the steps in collective bargaining to the lord of the vineyard.

Another spokesman has been the employer. His answer consists of sporadic testimony as to the speech skills his industry needs most. The reason such testimony is not the basis for more courses and course-organizations is probably that teachers of public speaking are unwilling to make three assumptions: (a) that the employer speaks for a vocation that is typical, (b) that he refers to only the speech situations that are significant, and (c) that he has accurately identified and described the speech skills his industry needs most.

The third spokesman, the student; has been with us all along, but since August 1945 his training and maturity have made his answer especially plausible. What kind of public speaking course does the *student* say he needs most? It was the purpose of this investigation to record his answers.

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His answers, however, would mean little unless the student (who was just completing his one-quarter course in basic public speaking) had in mind a list of the most practical courses to choose from, and some knowledge of the differences between the courses on his list. Without such alternatives before him, he would probably prefer the aims and emphases of the course he had just taken, as students apparently did on the NATS¹ and Phoenix College² questionnaires.

METHOD

In the survey — the results of which are reported in this paper — each of 720 technical students was asked to select from a list of nine kinds of speaking the one kind he thought would be most useful in his vocation, and to justify his selection by applying it to the situations he anticipated. The results (see Table I) show that almost 74 per cent chose either expository or persuasive speaking; however, exposition lead persuasion by more than two to one.

The survey began with several preliminary steps toward posing and clarifying the alternatives:

- A. Listing about a hundred speech situations anticipated by some forty students.
- B. Classifying the situations according to the speakers' purposes and methods.
- C. Listing and describing the nine kinds of speech training which seemed to the students to fit their situations best.
- D. Discussing in the review period the kinds of speech training which had *not* been sampled in the basic course.
- E. Instructing each class during its final examination period as follows:

"Part I of this examination is to be a two-page sentence outline. The outline must support the proposition that some ONE kind of speaking will be worth most to you in your vocation. (Imagine yourself on the job ten years from now. Then make a list of the situations in which you see yourself talking with people. Finally, decide which one kind of speaking will be *most* helpful in *most* of your situations;

¹Donald Hayworth, "Speech Training in Colleges of Engineering," *Journal of Engineering Education*, XXX 10 (June, 1940), 42.

²Wayne Edland, "What College Students Want to Learn in Freshman English," *College English*, II (1950), 407.

discard the other kinds.) For your convenience, here is a list of several kinds of speaking that are useful in different vocations. (If you anticipate no need, use No. 1.)

1. No speaking.
2. Speaking with all six purposes, as in this course.
3. Entertaining speaking (any speech to amuse or please) including the use of humor, illustration, and simple patterns of organization.
4. Expository speaking (any speech to explain, such as in lectures, reports, or instructions) including the use of visual aids such as diagrams, models, etc.
5. Group discussion: leading and taking part in panels, forums, round-tables, committees, etc.
6. Logical argument: using the various kinds of proof and the various methods of dealing with false reasoning.
7. Parliamentary law: leading and taking part in formal and informal meetings of organizations.
8. Persuasive speaking: adapting one's phrasing, organization, and delivery to the primary interests and desires of both the speaker and his hearer(s).
9. Radio speaking: using mike techniques in producing various kinds of programs, such as news reports, interviews, etc.
10. Voice training: clear speaking of sounds, words, phrases, and sentences, with reference to quality, volume, stress, pitch, etc."

SUBJECTS

More than 95 per cent of the students polled were veterans, of whom about 65 per cent were married. Almost 60 per cent had had their college education interrupted by the war. Some 80 per cent were sophomores, the rest juniors and seniors; their average age ranged from 27 in 1945 to 23 in 1949. Their replies to the survey question came between December, 1945 and June, 1949 at the end of their first college one-quarter fundamentals course in public speaking. How much of their vocational information they acquired during military service could not be determined. Their choices appear in the accompanying table.

TABLE I
Kinds of Speech Training Designated "Most Useful" by 720 Technical Students, 1945-49

| Curricula Sampled | No. of Students | % of Total Sample | % of Curr. |
|--------------------------|-----------------|-------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| All | 115 | 16 | | 9 | 1 | 44 | 15 | 1 |
| Agriculture | 41 | 6 | | 17 | 7 | 51 | 10 | 15 |
| Design* | 412 | 57 | 1 | 6 | 2 | 51 | 5 | |
| All Engineering | 26 | 3 | 4 | 4 | | 50 | 4 | 2 |
| Aeronautical | 38 | 5 | 2 | 13 | 3 | 50 | 11 | 11 |
| Chemical | 72 | 10 | | 8 | 3 | 62 | 1 | 16 |
| Civil | 106 | 15 | 1 | 4 | 2 | 54 | 3 | 13 |
| Electrical | 19 | 3 | | 5 | 48 | | 24 | 3 |
| General | 30 | 4 | 3 | 7 | | 33 | 10 | 21 |
| Industrial | 121 | 17 | | 3 | 41 | | 11 | 37 |
| Mechanical | 117 | 2 | | | 59 | 18 | 6 | 1 |
| Forestry | 42 | 6 | | 7 | 3 | 60 | 14 | 30 |
| Teacher Education** | 93 | 13 | | 3 | 4 | 42 | 7 | 17 |
| Textiles | | | 4 | 45 | 20 | 357 | 54 | 17 |
| Totals: Numerical | 720 | 100 | 0.5 | 6.3 | 2.8 | 49.6 | 7.5 | 24.2 |
| Percentage | | | | | | | | |

*Includes both landscaping and architecture

**Includes both agricultural and industrial-arts education

RESULTS

The choices shown opposite the group sizes of 2 per cent to 6 per cent in the second column are probably the most questionable, since they are the choices of small groups of from 14 to 43 students. Even these small groups, however, may be fair samples, for their standard deviations on exposition and persuasion are only .36 higher than those of the larger groups (7.45 vs. 7.81). In any event, the smaller ones call for only a few comments: the heaviest votes for all-purpose and for entertaining speaking both came from the School of Design, a number of whose students felt that an architect or landscaper needs to rely on entertaining speeches to make a favorable first impression on prospective clients. The heavy votes for radio speaking and voice training cast by the aeronautical engineers are perhaps traceable to the needs they felt during the war, when most of them were pilots. That Forestry and Teacher Education (along with Agriculture) produced the high votes for group discussion is understandable, but why one-fourth of the general-engineering vote was for logical argument is not. (Why should students in General Engineering be any more aware of foggy thinking than the rest?) Most of the small groups registered near the average in the expository and persuasive columns; only Teacher Education and Industrial Engineering are near the extremes in *both* columns. Industrial Engineering has the lowest vote for expository speaking but the highest for persuasive. Teacher Education has almost the reverse — next to the top for exposition but third from the bottom for persuasion.

The choices across from the larger percentages in the second column are doubtless the more significant ones since they represent the selections of more than 70 per cent of the students. It is noteworthy that, among the larger groups, Agriculture has the highest vote for group discussion, Civil Engineering for exposition, and Mechanical Engineering and Textiles for persuasion. The difference between C. E. and M. E. is especially interesting: the heaviest vote for expository speaking came from C. E.; whereas, almost the lightest came from M. E. The textile students, like the mechanical engineers, turned in one of the heaviest votes for persuasion but one of the lightest for exposition. These two groups also held the highest percentage of prospective sales engineers.

The total percentages in the columns under expository and per-

susive speaking are probably the most significant figures of the entire poll. They show that almost three-fourths of these technical students believe that either expository or persuasive speaking will be more useful to them vocationally than will any other kind, and more than two-thirds of the 74 per cent believe that expository speaking will be more useful than will persuasive.

Why, then, do they not enroll in courses in expository speaking, or at least read a text or so on the subject? A cursory examination of fifty-odd recent catalogues of technical schools has revealed not even one course limited to the general purpose *to explain*. Furthermore, if and when such a course is given, it may have to begin without benefit of text. In response to inquiries, fifteen leading publishers have said that they have no such text planned for publication.

CONCLUSIONS

Since the results of this survey seem to question sharply some of the assumptions underlying our present course and textbook offerings, a preliminary conclusion must be that verification is in order. The survey seems to point most directly to the need for a file of analyses of vocational speech situations by speech instructors, each of whom is familiar with the business or professional position whose speech situations he is analyzing. Claims that a particular skill is "practical," "useful," or "necessary" will be much sounder when they can be supported to such a series of case histories. Meanwhile, polling the opinions of both present and former students offers another and readier means of verifying the results of this survey.

These results hold obvious significance for those schools and departments whose primary concern is technical training. These statements are phrased for them. Since, however, most of the 720 students were mature, well-informed and representative veterans, the survey has implications that will interest every teacher of speaking.

1. The sampling of students' opinions as to the speech needs they anticipate may be a necessary part of any course in speaking, if only to provide a check on the prophecies of instructors and employers. (The effects on the morale of students and on their awareness of the wide range of speech activity are two obvious by-products.³)

³The values listed by Edland, 407-8, relate also to public speaking.

2. It is possible that administrators, or their course committees, should have set up courses in expository speaking several years ago. (Such courses might conceivably appeal to the deans of engineering colleges, of which more than half offered no public speaking at the time of the NATS survey.⁴)
3. Teachers of the basic course in public speaking should beware of overemphasizing persuasion. The fact that persuasion is more difficult does not mean that persuasion is more necessary.⁵
4. Throughout any of the kinds of speech training here tabulated, the instructor's first criteria should probably be always the expository ones: Was the speaker clear on the point before he spoke? Was the listener clear on it afterward?
5. Those communications and public speaking courses which give the same emphasis to exposition as to persuasion may have taken only the first step in the right direction: exposition should apparently have *twice* the emphasis.

⁴Hayworth, 49.

⁵Edland, 407.

*In

"TO SEE OURSELVES AS OTHERS SEE US"

ARTHUR EISENSTADT*

The use of mechanical apparatus as aids in teaching various aspects of speech is common in many of our schools today. Audiometers, oscilloscopes, and tape, wire, or disc recorders, are frequently used. All of these, however, relate to the reproduction of the *audible* elements of speech. What about reproducing the visible elements for similar analysis and improvement of the speaker? To be sure, mirrors, photographs, diagrams, and models have long been employed for these purposes. Nevertheless, from the student's viewpoint, these techniques are likely to be either somewhat indirect and remote, as in the case of pictures and models of other speakers; or too rapid and impermanent, as in the use of the mirror.

What other methods are available? There are several, some of them doubtless in partial use at present. The teacher can sketch or diagram the student's appearance, he can pantomime or re-enact what his pupil has done, a "still" or snapshot can be made, or if feasible, motion pictures can be taken of the speech activities in question. To draw or re-enact always involves the subjective factor. Does the student believe that this is how he looks, or does he doubt the accuracy of the reproduction? To take snapshots under such conditions requires a very good camera, continuous and wearing vigilance on the part of the photographer, and literally split-second timing and alertness. The remaining method, motion pictures, seemed to offer such attractive possibilities that I determined to experiment with it in a public speaking class.

Assembling the required equipment proved to be a simple matter. The only really essential items, an ordinary "home movie" camera, some double-x film, and a projector, were fortunately in my possession. (Their combined cost, by the way, is less than that of most sound recorders. A simple alternative to ownership or purchase, and in some respects a better one, since more expensive and better material thus becomes available, is to rent both camera and projector, a service offered by many camera shops.) Two floodlights and an exposure meter volunteered by class members were deemed advisable precautions should the sun and clouds prove uncooperative. Finally,

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a play-back screen was "lend-leased" from the science department, and the project was underway.

The class assignment called for a round of speeches describing a physical object. This type of speech was chosen because it followed closely after class study of platform manner, stance, gestures, facial expression, and eye contact; and the nature of the assignment encouraged the use of the visible aspects of public speaking. A short talk concerning the purpose and method of the picture-taking was then given the group.

On the scheduled day lights were adjusted, cameraman positioned, a chalked area marked off, the exposure meter consulted, and then first speaker called. Two members of the class, sitting in the center of the group, operated the camera. This left the instructor free to take notes and continue his regular class procedure in the normal way.

In order to minimize the self-consciousness that might develop, each student was photographed several times during his speech for a total of about twenty seconds rather than continuously. Each speaker stood within a two by three foot rectangle chalked on the speaker's platform, but he made no other attempt to accommodate the photographer; in fact, he ignored the photographer as much as possible and directed his attention to the listeners.

There was an interval in mid-period when the pupil-chairman conducted a discussion of the speeches given. This interval was used to reverse the film and rewind the camera. The speeches and movie taking were then resumed until the entire class had been filmed. It was possible to conduct these activities without any appreciable loss of time or inconvenience to the class or the instructor.

Two weeks later, on receipt of the developed film, a projector and screen were set up, and the results of their efforts were flashed before an extremely curious group. Since the entire spool took only five minutes to run, the complete film was shown once without comment to allow the comic and novel aspects of the situation to dissipate themselves. Then the class was told to watch for easy, uninhibited stance, the presence or absence of animated, meaningful gesture and facial expression, the use or misuse of pivotal, broad eye contact, and the general appearance and demeanor of the speakers. After this, the film was run again at a slightly slower speed, accompanied by analysis and comment from the teacher. Here and there would

be a pause on a "still," while certain techniques were pointed out and amplified. Later the lights were turned on, and the class discussed the film and reviewed what noteworthy features it seemed to reveal to them. The comments indicated keen interest, alertness, and a refreshing candor. A rather rueful confession from a lad addicted to flamboyant neckties and over-natty dress was, "It looks to me as though sharp outfits don't look very good to the people you're trying to impress." One boy volunteered, much to the instructor's gratification, "I see what you mean about burying your nose in your memo cards." Another chimed in, "Yes, and when you gestured while holding on to those cards, I kept following the cards, not what you were saying." Another *mea culpa* duet was, "I guess I've got to break my habit of looking down at the floor and out of the window," followed by, "Well, I'm sort of in the same boat, I kept looking 'way over at the back wall." Perhaps the most interesting allied comments came from two boys of widely different speaking habits. One, who habitually used considerable platform activity, remarked, "You know, I've always been a little worried that maybe I used too much gesture and movement, but what I saw today looks as though I'm not really overdoing it." The second, who continually depicted the wooden statue, said, "That's funny, I'm just the opposite. I always felt that whenever I smiled or gestured, it looked as peculiar as it felt to me while I was doing it, but I have to admit that what I say seems to have more weight and sincerity when I look and act as though I mean it."

On several counts, the experiment seemed to yield very worthwhile results. Undeniably, it had proved to be a strong motivating factor. Just as we find students eager to hear what they sound like, these people were eager to see what they looked like when addressing a group. For many, it was probably the first time they had figured in a motion picture. The remarks made signified much more than recreational, detached interest in what they saw. Also, both the subjective judgment factor and the sometimes irritating or discouraging teacher-criticism were replaced by something more accurate and just as personal, yet not nearly as biting or disappointing. In effect, it was not "j'accuse," but "see for yourself." The use of students as cameramen, time-keepers, and flood-light operators made the situation less strange and more of a collective effort, a community project. That a reinforced awareness of individual weaknesses and of what

should and should not be done — examples of both abounded in the film — was amply revealed by students' own comments.

Unfortunately, since this device was tried during an accelerated four-week summer program, it was not possible to observe the subsequent change or improvement in the students for any significant number of speeches. The primary goal, however, of attractively handling the material in a way calculated to make a lasting impression seemed to have been substantially achieved. In any event, what part of said change would be due to the film-lecture method rather than to additional activities is very much a moot point, perhaps open to discernment through the use of a control group. Suffice it from the writer's point of view to say that if one desires to teach these items of speech technique, and many teachers of public speaking do, here is a self-motivating and practicable method of procedure. In addition, it offers an aid both in private interviews with students and in refreshing the teacher's memory in making end-term evaluations, particularly in terms of relative merit and individual development. The simplicity of equipment, facilities, and operation tend further to recommend its use.

It may be here noted that variations and other applications of class motion picture study are tenable. Clinicians and teachers of speech correction, oral interpretation, and dramatics will possibly find this a helpful adjunct to their work. By making sound recordings and films simultaneously, an inexpensive yet reasonably adequate substitute for sound films may be worked out. Lastly, using these facilities makes available the fruits of the ever-growing film libraries in our country, and permits a pooling, via country-wide loans, of the techniques and results of various teachers.

Whatever other ramifications are possible, it is for the student's benefit that they are sought. And however trite and oversimplified the phrase, it is none the less true for many of these students that "Seeing is believing."

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A SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY OF BIBLIOGRAPHIES FOR STUDENTS OF SPEECH

FRANKLIN H. KNOWER*

This bibliography has grown out of the task of starting graduate students in Speech to work on the comprehensive study of the literature of their field. It is intended to be suggestive rather than systematic and exhaustive. References are limited to books and articles which are devoted primarily to bibliographical sources.

The section on *General Speech* contains bibliographies on the fundamental processes of speech, on cognate fields in which we are interested, and on general reference materials. The philosophy of this unit is that these references should be of interest to all our students including those in the special areas which follow this unit. The other units include: *Rhetoric and Public Address*, *Radio and Television*, *Theatre*, *Speech and Hearing Disorders*, and *Speech Education*.

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BOOK REVIEWS

TEACHING YOUR CHILD TO TALK: By C. Van Riper. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950; pp. vi + 141; \$2.00.

Mr. Van Riper has written a non-technical book on speech development designed to enable parents to avoid some of the errors in child guidance which might lead to defective speech.

Although there is no clear statement of purpose, there seem to be two main objectives for writing this book. First, the author seeks to arouse an interest in and a desire for intelligent and logical parental speech instruction for children. Secondly, he gives some practical suggestions in guiding a child's development of speech from infancy through adolescence. The first objective is accomplished with great success. The illustrations and style make the book a possible subject for a Hollywood sequel to *Sitting Pretty or Cheaper by the Dozen*. However, conscientious young parents aroused by the need for proper speech training for their progeny might wish for more specific suggestions for guaranteeing that their child will not "stutter, lisp or lall."

Chapter I, "How Your Child Learns to Talk," is a brief description of the "bang-and-blunder" way most children learn to speak. Chapter II and III deal with the development of utterance and pronunciation — the howling and babbling periods of infancy. According to Mr. Van Riper the infant's development of comprehension and imitation (Chapter IV and V) is as fascinating as his early attempts to creep and walk. In Chapter II, "The Child's First Words," the importance of recognizing a child's "speech-readiness" is emphasized.

In discussing vocabulary building or "Collecting Tools" the parents are advised to "teach phrases as well as single words. 'Cookie' can always be taught as 'eat cookie.' This policy may also help the child to remember to keep it out of his hair."

The reader may be surprised to learn that "a little parental baby talk at the appropriate stage of speech development is an excellent thing."

Mr. Van Riper describes some situations which invite defective speech in his discourse on "Tangled Tongues." He maintains, "Speech to a little child should be a tool, not a tube of make-up. No mother has the right to bolster up the falling arches of her 'ego' by promoting her child's verbal exhibitions. Some children are subjected to a constant stream of (verbal) commands, exhortations, warnings, requests, prohibitions and corrections. . . Each of these can serve as a speech disrupter, as a producer of speech hesitations."

When a parent has lived through "baby talk" he still has to go through the questioning period and the other phases described in the final chapters of the book, "Growing Up Verbally" and adolescent speech or "Between Speech."

Since the kindergarten and first grade teacher play a major role in the speech training of our modern children, they, too, will find this book interesting and enlightening. In our complex society fluency is more necessary than in the past, and each child has the right to expect the best possible start.

All speech correction teachers will find that this book helps them answer

the question asked by the parents of children they work with, "What can I do to help my child?"

Teaching Your Child to Talk should occupy a prominent place in the "gifts for the new baby and new parents" display in the department stores. No greater gift could parents give to their children than fluent speech. It should also appear in the bibliographies of advised reading for speech correction teachers and primary teachers.

MARGARET F. PERRITT

Speech Correction Teacher
Alachua County, Florida

THE PLAY: A CRITICAL ANTHOLOGY: Edited by Eric Bentley. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1951; pp. xii + 774; \$3.85; text edition \$2.50.

In a "Letter to the Reader," Bentley says that "this anthology provides the basic material for some elementary lessons on the drama." He intends to be a critical guide on a journey through some of the significant accomplishments of playwrights, "passing from superior melodrama (*Cyrano de Bergerac*) and superior farce (*The Importance of Being Earnest*) to high comedy of two kinds (*The Miser* and *Twelfth Night*) and thence to tragedy of two kinds (*Othello* and *Antigone*) and finally to modern drama of two kinds, the realistic and the fantastic (*Ghosts* and *A Ghost Sonata*)."¹ The reader, at the end of this journey, after he has been given considerable instruction about the form and content of drama, is presented with Arthur Miller's *The Death of a Salesman* and is urged to read this play twice, after which he is to write a critical review of the play "as if he had just witnessed a performance." As a check on how he rates as a critic, the reader is then to study the collection of critical reviews which follow the play. He will find a crossfire of conflicting criticisms of *Death of a Salesman* as recorded by Brooks Atkinson, Ivor Brown, John Mason Brown, Eleanor Clark, and Frederick Morgan. When he has discovered how at odds the critics are in their criteria for judging the same play, the reader should realize that he must eventually find his own way to a knowledge of how to analyze and evaluate drama. It is Bentley's hope that a stout beginning on the way to knowledge has been given the reader on the journey through this anthology of plays.

Since many of the plays the reader will encounter in this collection are translations, the translations should be evaluated. Moliere's *The Miser*, translated by Lloyd Parks, Ibsen's *Ghosts*, translated by Eva LeGallienne, and Strindberg's *The Ghost Sonata*, translated by Elizabeth Sprigge, are excellent translations, eminently readable and playable. On the other hand, Humbert Wolfe's translation of Rostrand's *Cyrano de Bergerac*, although it admirably displays the translator's gift for comic rhyming, lacks the poetic nuance and the fine rhetorical virtuosity of Brian Hooker's version. And *Antigone*, in this anthology, is Sophocles' play adapted from the Greek by Jean Cocteau in an English version by Carl Wittman, with revisions by Bentley. Little remains of the great beauty

and power of the original play. This version, as Bentley says, is a "sort of synopsis," but is "defensible on the grounds that much of Sophocles is lost anyway."

In conducting the journey through the nine plays of this anthology, Bentley has used an interesting method of critical guidance. His main intention is to examine the form and content of drama by means of critical analysis. He eschews definitions of comedy and tragedy, but discusses, in terms of particular plays, such technical and structural features of drama as plot, character, theme, dialogue, spectacle, parallelism, contrast, inversion, repetition, alternation. Some of such information is gradually revealed in the short introduction to each play, which contains only the material essential to get the reader started, and some in the follow-up section after each play, where Bentley is waiting to talk over the reading just finished. Much of the "talk" displays keen critical insight, but often seems unorthodox in spirit and point of view because an attempt is made to find a new way of expressing old ideas. However, Bentley tries hard not to force his own opinions on the reader and often either breaks his discussion with a flurry of provocative questions, or cites excellent sources for conflicting opinions regarding the point at hand. This is a lively and stimulating method of instruction.

This anthology might prove to be useful as the basic text in a beginning course in the study of dramatic literature. It is a handy size (5x7) and the textbook edition is quite inexpensive (\$2.75). Unfortunately, the length of the book (750 pages) has necessitated the use of very small type, but as an excellent feature there are ground plans and illustrations of the Globe Playhouse, the Greek Theatre at Athens, the "Theatre of Ibsen," and also a sketch of Mielziner's setting for *Death of a Salesman*. As an Appendix there is a reprint of Erwin Panofsky's interesting essay on the art of the motion picture.

DAVID S. HAWES

Stanford University

FÉNELON'S DIALOGUES ON ELOQUENCE. A Translation with Introduction and Notes. By Samuel Howell Wilbur. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1951; pp. vii + 160; \$3.00.

As one of the important landmarks in the reversion of modern rhetoric to classicism, Fénelon's *Dialogues on Eloquence* have long required the careful attention of a trained rhetorical scholar.

Because the original manuscript appears to have been lost or destroyed shortly after it was first printed, later French editions of the work vary considerably in value. Moreover, of the three translations into English hitherto attempted, none is without serious imperfections, and only one (that issued by William Stevenson in 1722) is generally available in American libraries.

Working from the princeps (Paris, 1718) and the version prepared by Goselin and Caron, and published in the so-called Versailles edition of Fénelon's complete works (1820-30), Mr. Howell has edited the text of the *Dialogues*

with unusual competence and has supplied an English translation which pays close attention to Fénelon's rhetorical terminology. In addition, he has provided an introduction which offers a valuable body of information concerning the work and attempts to place it in the general stream of the history of rhetoric.

Characterizing the *Dialogues* "as an effective counterstand against Ramus' neo-scholastic theory of communication," Mr. Howell first presents an admirably clear and penetrating analysis of Ramus' views on logic and rhetoric, and then describes the attacks leveled against them by Antoine Arnauld in *The Port Royal Logic* (1662) and by Bernard Lamy in *L'Art de Parler* (1675). *The Port Royal Logic* he regards a strictly anti-Ramean. *L'Art de Parler*, however, he describes as a compromise between Ramus and the classical rhetoric. Here the argument becomes a bit strained, and doubtless will be questioned by some scholars. For while it is true that Lamy did treat the "art of speaking" and the "art of persuasion" in separate and quite distinct portions of his book, and while he dealt at very considerable length with the problems of style and delivery, it is also true that the entire orientation of his treatise is classical and shows throughout marked Aristotelian and Ciceronian overtones. In view of this fact, it may perhaps more properly be regarded an anti-Ramean.

The *Dialogues* themselves are too well known to require extensive comment. As Mr. Howell points out, Fénelon attacks Ramus on the same general grounds and with the same weapons that Plato has used to attack the sophists. Thus the Archbishop stresses the closeness of the relation between logic and rhetoric, criticizes the doctrine of places as arid and restrictive, avoids a description of tropes and figures, urges a generic rather than a schematic plan of division, and advocates the natural method in both style and delivery. In addition, he presents a rounded view of the entire art of speaking, with due attention to the departments of invention and disposition.

Nor should it be forgotten, as Mr. Howell takes pains to make clear, that though the *Dialogues* deal estensibily with the subject of preaching, they treat it as "a phase of the larger enterprise of communication," and survey "the entire subject of speaking and writing [in] the large outlines of the theory of literary effort."

Now that the text of Fénelon's work has been made more readily available, one may hope that it will become an integral part of our courses in the history of modern rhetorical theory. For this purpose the English translation will undoubtedly prove helpful, though, for his own part, the reviewer would have preferred a corrected French text. This, however, is purely a matter of personal judgment. By and large, Mr. Howell deserves nothing but praise for this his latest effort. Continuing the high standards of scholarship set in his *Alcuin*, it increases the impatience with which his forthcoming history of modern rhetoric will be awaited.

DOUGLAS ERNINGER

University of Florida

NEWS AND NOTES

Dr. Robert Dierlam, editor of the book review section of THE SOUTHERN SPEECH JOURNAL, resigned that position and also from his position on the staff of the Speech Department at The University of Florida during the summer in order to take advantage of a Fullbright Grant for study in Austria this year.

Dr. Harold Weiss, Chairman of the Speech Department, Southern Methodist University, Dallas, Texas has accepted the appointment as our new book review editor.

Mr. H. P. Constans who spent a cool summer teaching in Maine is back at The University of Florida.

Mr. Joseph C. Weatherby of Duke University and Dr. Dallas Dickey of The University of Florida made an exchange for the summer. Dr. Dickey taught at Duke while Mr. Weatherby did work toward his doctorate at The University of Florida.

Dr. T. Earle Johnson, University of Alabama, served on the speech correction staff at The University of Michigan during the summer.

Dr. Howard W. Townsend, University of Texas, taught for the first summer term at Stephen F. Austin State College, Nacogdoches, Texas.

Carolyn Vance and Lauren Foreman were united in marriage in September at the bride's home in Buford, Georgia. Mrs. Foreman was assistant professor of speech and director of the speech clinic of the University of Georgia. Mr. Foreman is archivist of the Sigma Alpha Epsilon Fraternity in Evanston.

New staff members at Mississippi Southern College are Dr. Chase Winfrey, Forensics and Public Address; S. Q. Breard, Oral Communication and Clinic; and Frank McCann, Radio.

The Orlando, Florida Thespian troupe won second prize in the Row Peterson 1950-51 National Play Picture Contest. The play was "Mollie O'Shaughnessy," by Dorothy Rood Stewart and was directed by Mildred E. Murphy.

The Speech Department of the University of Houston has added the following staff members: Quinnan H. Hodges, Patsy Ruth Heidt, and Doris Williamson. Dr. Wilton W. Cook is Chairman of the Division of Fine Arts at the University of Houston. Dr. Cook was formerly at the University of Southern California and was former Dean of Men at Hardin-Simmons University and North Texas State. He also served as Network Program director in Radio on the Staff of General MacArthur.

Dr. Otis Walter, Jr. is acting head of the Speech Division at the University of Houston.

At Shorter College, Rome, Georgia a laboratory course designed to improve

bi-lingualism has been introduced. Students from six countries are enrolled in the course.

Debate coach at Vanderbilt University is Mr. Larry McMillen.

The Texas Education Agency, together with a number of sponsoring organizations, held a week's conference on Professional Competence for Teachers at Southern Methodist University, Dallas, on July 23-28. Educators from all over the state were present to discuss new standards for certification of teachers. The Speech-Drama field was well represented.

One section of the training program was labelled throughout as Speech-Drama, and this training in the broad field concept was finally placed in communicative arts.

The general program finally arrived at provides a minimum of six hours training in speech for all teachers regardless of subject and training in speech correction and creative dramatics for elementary teachers. For teachers majoring in Speech-Drama, one-third of their work must be in drama subjects, one-third in speech subjects, and the other third in either one or the other according to their preference. Of course, the real goal is a five-year training program in which the teacher can be adequately trained. The fifth year of this program would provide for 15 semester hours in advanced or graduate level Speech-Drama and 15 hours of free electives.

Dr. Larson, Texas Tech, has written the report for the Speech-Drama group and will be glad to send detailed copies to anyone requesting them.

The Ninth Annual Reading Institute at Temple University has been announced for the week of January 28 to February 1, 1952. The theme will be Prevention and Correction of Reading Difficulties. In addition to the Temple University Reading Clinic Staff and their colleagues, distinguished specialists in reading contribute to the activities. Laboratory practice under competent supervision is provided in half-day sessions. Dr. Emmett Albert Betts is the director of the program.

For six weeks beginning July 26, 1951, The University of Texas conducted an English Language and Orientation Center by assignment of two agencies. These programs were independent of each other in so far as administrative origin was concerned and were planned according to two sets of general and specific objectives.

The United State Office of Education sent a group of fifteen foreign teachers to Texas for a period of six weeks training in the teaching of English as a second language. After their period of training, these teachers were to return to their respective countries to take up their duties as supervisors and/or teachers in English programs. The second group of students were assigned from the Institute of International Education by authority of the Army, the State Department, and the Institute of International Education acting for private agencies. These students were to undergo an "orientation" and language practice period of six weeks after which they were to go on to other universities and colleges to which they had been assigned for one year of study.

The objectives for the teachers include intensive instructions in grammar and composition, conversation and pronunciation, linguistics and phonetics, and methods and materials. The instruction included intensive practice in the use of English under various circumstances including individual practice with the instructor and the use of English in a group situation. Special attention was given to the viewpoint of the teacher in each of the two situations.

The staff of the center was recruited from the faculties of the Departments of Speech, English, Romance Languages, and Government. Members of the Departments of Speech, English, and Romance Languages were in charge of the language program.

The English language instruction laid great emphasis on the acquisition of hearing and speaking skills. The primary aim was to increase the fluency of the student. In order to know at what point the student should begin his instruction, a rather extensive program of testing initiated his activity.

The teachers from various countries who were to go back as instructors in English were given intensive training in the use of techniques and methods employed at The University of Texas in the teaching of English as a second language. They were likewise given practice in the building of materials for their own specific needs. Instruction in the four areas delineated was presented from the double viewpoint of the teachers specific linguistic needs at this given point in his mastery of English and the use of these techniques later in teaching. They were acquainted with special problems originating in specific linguistic backgrounds of the students. They were likewise familiarized with the use of mechanical equipment and also with such substitutes as might be available when mechanical equipment could not be had.

As a culmination to the activities, the students prepared a radio program in cooperation with Radio House of The University of Texas which was broadcast over a local station. This program was also made available as a public service feature for later broadcast over all stations in the State of Texas. A total of forty-nine people were enrolled for the English Language and Orientation Program at The University of Texas with seventeen languages represented among this group of teachers and students.

Dr. Jesse J. Villarreal and Mrs. Eva Currie were the representatives of the Speech Department to work with this program, the language portion being under the direction of their department.

**NATIONAL DEBATE PROPOSITION AND DISCUSSION QUESTION FOR
AMERICAN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES, 1951-1952.**

As of August 15, 1951, the Committee on Intercollegiate Debate and Discussion of the Speech Association of America announces the results of the preferential poll to determine the proposition and the question for nation-wide use during the season of 1951-1952. The accompanying table shows that the DEBATE proposition is:

Resolved, That the Federal Government
should adopt a permanent
program of wage and price
control.

and that the DISCUSSION question is:

How can we as a nation improve our ethical
and moral conduct?

If circumstances require a change during the season, the Committee may, by a three-fifths vote, alter the wording or move to a second-choice proposition or question. Any "official" interpretation is forbidden. Your representative on the Committee will be pleased to supply further information concerning the rules under which we operate. Questions may also be brought up in the open meeting of the Committee during the national convention.

Respectfully submitted,

T. Earle Johnson (Tau Kappa Alpha)
William Howell (Delta Sigma Rho)
Glenn Capp (Pi Kappa Delta)
Glenn Jones (Phi Rho Pi)
Glen Mills (S.A.A.), Chairman

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The Little Dog Laughed, *Antic Spring*, *Sob Stuff*, *On the Sentimental Side*,
The Kid Makes Up His Mind

Shorter College. Rome, Ga.—Dir. Anne Whipple

The Swan, *Dear Brutus*, *The Taming of the Shrew*

Furman University. Greenville, S.C.—Dir. Dr. Dorothy Richey

Captain Apple Jack, *If I Were King*

Vanderbilt University.—Dir. Joseph W. Wright

See How They Run, *The Imaginary Invalid*

Eastern Kentucky State College—Dir. Keith Brooks

The Green Pastures

William and Mary Theatre—Dir. Althea Hunt

Ten Little Indians, *The Silver Cord*, *Merchant of Venice*

University of Alabama—Dir. Marian Gallaway

The Madwoman of Chaillot, The Devil's Disciple

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Madwoman of Chaillot

M.S.C.W. Columbus, Miss.—Dir. Frances M. Bailey

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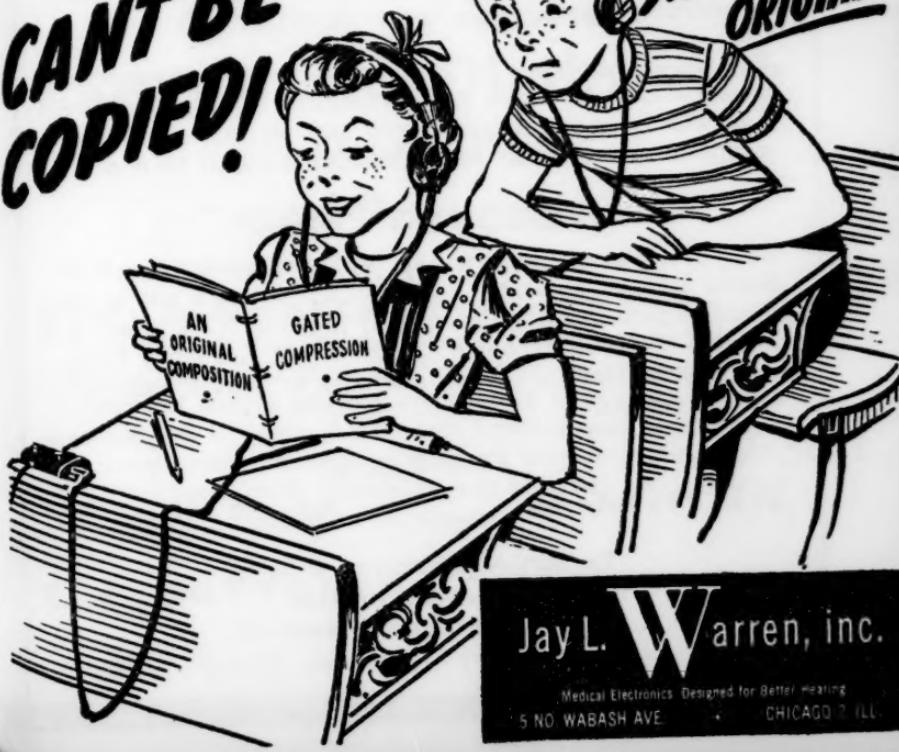
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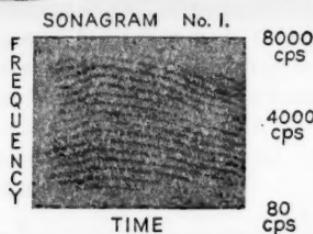
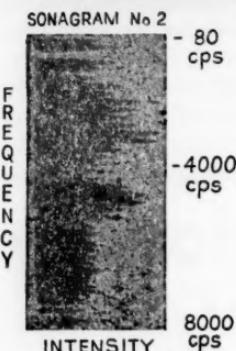
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